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# Implications of Leadership Style and Goal Setting on Leadership Processes as Perceived by School Superintendents

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IMPLICATIONS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND GOAL SETTING  
ON LEADERSHIP PROCESSES AS PERCEIVED  
BY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

by

Stanley L. Mularz

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of Education of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment  
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## LIFE

Stanley L. Mularz was born in Chicago, April 11, 1923.

He was graduated from Weber High School, Chicago, Illinois, in June, 1940. He received the Bachelor of Arts degree from St. Louis University in February, 1945, the degree of Master of Education from DePaul University in February, 1954, the Executive Program Certificate from the University of Chicago in June, 1960, and degree of Master of Business Administration from the University of Chicago in September, 1960.

The author taught at the Benedictine Military Junior College, Savannah, Georgia, the Chicago Public Elementary and High Schools, Grant Community High School in Fox Lake, Illinois, and the Morgan Park Military Academy and Junior College. From 1952 to 1969 the author was employed by Aldens, Inc. and advanced through several administrative positions including director of training, regional credit manager, operations manager, manager of industrial relations and assistant vice president of the Credit Division. While at Aldens, he implemented an employee orientation and training program based on team teaching methods and techniques.

In June, 1969, he was appointed vice president and general manager of the Credit Bureau of Cook County, a division of Trans Union Systems Corporation, where he directed the conversion of the manual operations to a computerized credit information system. He implemented employee training programs designed to train and educate personnel in the performance of computer oriented job functions.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

#### The Theme

The superintendency of schools is one of the most crucial and perhaps most difficult positions in American life today. The school superintendent is in a better position than any other single person in the community to influence the shape of public education. Thus, the superintendent has a basic role in determining what will become of the young people of his community, and through them, what his community and the nation will become.

The role of the superintendent is inherently difficult and complex. It is further complicated by the many great changes which have taken and are taking place in our society. Among these changes are the growth of knowledge and of its impact on life, the population explosion, rural depopulation and urban growth, technological progress, and widespread demand for equal opportunity. Social conditions have been altered by major Supreme Court rulings, such as, the "Brown" decision which declared that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal."<sup>1</sup> A more recent landmark decision, rendered by the Fifth Circuit Federal Court, ruled that the United States Office of Education should issue guidelines for the integration of schools. Under this ruling students, faculties, and activities must be integrated. Boards of Education of states

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<sup>1</sup>Brown v.s. Board of Education, 347 U. S. 483, 74 Sup. Ct. 686, (1954).

containing segregated systems have an affirmative duty to reorganize into a unitary, integrated system. Criteria were established to carry out the objectives of desegregation.<sup>2</sup>

The concept of the school as a social institution is undergoing change. At one time the school was an exclusive situation. Social demands have imposed a favorable open-door policy requiring school districts to provide for the special educational needs of certain children who are denied admittance in a regular school because of some physical or mental deficiency. As an example, statutory requirements prescribe programs and facilities of special schools which accept the educable and trainable mentally handicapped and other pupils with special education needs. The educational function of the school has changed from strictly academic to the training of the whole child. To provide for these diversified needs, school boards have introduced educational programs, many of which are not strictly academic but are within the provisions of statutory requirements. Scientific advances, expanded media of communication, automation, student unrest, the drug problem, sex education, teacher militancy and problems of school finances are some of the issues adding to the ever increasing complexity of the environment in which the superintendent must operate as the chief school administrator.

A most fitting portrayal of the role, the problems, and the potential of the superintendency of schools was depicted by the Educational Policies

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<sup>2</sup>U. S. v.s. Jefferson County Board of Education, 372 F 2d 836 (1968).



Commission on the occasion of the one hundredth anniversary of the American Association of School Administrators.

Educational leadership is at the center of virtually all the current social revolutions, shaping them and being shaped by them. Its involvement is inevitable. But its chances for success are determined in large part by the intentional actions of men. That is why a community should expect its superintendent to possess outstanding qualities of leadership.<sup>3</sup>

Educational leadership is at the center of the superintendent's efforts to provide for the best possible education in the community. The superintendent has many functions, but all are focused on this central function of improving educational opportunity. This central function is the raison d'etre for the other functions of educational administration, and provides opportunities for the superintendent to exert his best leadership efforts.

This means creating the conditions in which other people can get things done and above all in which the teacher in the classroom can perform to the best of his ability. It also means assisting the school board in the formulation of policies governing the school system. Increasingly, it implies a key role in the development of general policies affecting the life of the locality, the state, and the nation. The superintendent is a leader in the true sense, for he must be expert in bringing out the best in his community and in his staff.<sup>4</sup>

In his considerations of the instructional program of schools, the superintendent seeks consensus of his board, community, and staff on the goals of the schools as a basis for decisions on the program. His community may press for the addition of certain instructional courses to the program in the schools.

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<sup>3</sup>Educational Policies Commission. The Unique Role of the Superintendent of Schools. National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators (Washington, D.C., 1965), p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

Values of suggested activities must be carefully balanced with the demands of the current ones. By providing leadership in making decisions on such matters, the superintendent influences the quality of all teaching in his school system.

The management aspects of administration constitute a vast task of making choices and stimulating action and consensus. The success with which the superintendent executes his managerial functions will depend largely on the kinds of decisions he makes and his ability to motivate others toward carrying out those decisions. He has the major responsibility for the selection and appointment of the system's personnel; he has a crucial role in setting standards of professional competence. Similarly, school budget decisions must be based on the superintendent's careful consideration of each decision's impact on the quality of the schools.

In all his work, the superintendent interacts with the school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community. He knows that leadership in such a framework involves more than transmitting policy decisions from board to staff or requests from staff to board. The superintendent can fill his leadership responsibility by striving for teamwork and general agreement among the above reference groups with which he interacts and on which he must exert his influence to achieve educational goals.

Because he is an official in a "democratic society," the superintendent must consider the public's views. There is a practical reason to do so; the community's views influence the quality of the schools. Schools are supported by taxes paid by the public. The public's willingness to pay taxes influences the schools' choices, and "public tolerance" is an essential foundation of

academic freedom.<sup>5</sup> In short, the superintendent is teacher, politician, philosopher, student of life, public relations counselor, and businessman. All these aspects are involved in his central role of leadership.

Those people who make up the school system are thinking and acting differently than they did two or three decades ago -- or, for that matter, ten years ago. The nature of the chief administrator's responsibilities is undergoing radical change, even though the position remains superficially the same. New attitudes toward and expectations with respect to the school superintendent have developed. Feelings of teachers toward the superintendent have undergone rapid change during a relatively short period of time. School district reorganization has brought about new dimensions of the administrator's relationship with the board of education. The growth of districts in size has created new situations in which the central staff of specialists interacts with the superintendent. Sheer size and, in many cases, rapid and astronomical growth in enrollment have changed the very nature of the American school district. Under these circumstances the chief school administrator is compelled to exert his professional leadership.<sup>6</sup>

Traditional theorists of educational administration have emphasized a democratic or "group centered" leadership style to improve the leadership situation. Leadership has also been identified as being synonymous with

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<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>6</sup>Natt E. Burbank, The Superintendent of Schools (Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers & Publishers, 1968), pp. 23 - 26.

administration. The word leadership has been widely used; yet, there is widespread disagreement as to its meaning. However, there appears to be a common agreement on one of the elements of leadership, namely, that "all leadership acts are goal oriented."<sup>7</sup>

The leader uses his influence to achieve some desired (although often unconscious) goal or goals. These goals toward which individuals exert their influence fall into four categories, whose differences have considerable relevance for leadership theory. The following classifications should not suggest that any given influence effort is necessarily aimed exclusively at one single goal. Often a complex of goals is involved, as when a leader brings about the attainment of organizational goals and at the same time satisfies some of his own needs.<sup>8</sup>

Tannenbaum et al. identify and define the four classifications of goals mentioned above, as follows:

1. Organizational goals: These goals are the rationally contrived purposes of the organizational entity. The leaders are held responsible by their supervisors for influencing others toward the attainment of the organizational goals. Since these goals have little or no direct motivational import to the followers, the administrator's task of leadership often requires him to use other inducements which have relevance to the need systems of the followers.
2. Group goals: These are relevant goals which evolve in small, informal, face-to-face groups through the interaction of the members of the group. They reflect "what the group wants to do," although not necessarily unanimously. In such a situation, the leader is anyone who uses his influence to facilitate the group's attainment of its own goals. The achievement of effective influence in such groups depends upon the leader's sensitivity to the group's objectives and upon his skill in bringing about their realization.
3. Personal goals of the follower: The leader uses his influence to assist the follower in attaining his own (the follower's) personal goals.

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<sup>7</sup>Robert Tannenbaum, Irving E. Weschler and Fred Massarik, Leadership and Organization (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1961), p. 28.

<sup>8</sup>Tannenbaum, et al., Ibid.

4. Personal goals of the leader: These are goals set by leaders who use their influence primarily to meet their own needs. At times such personal motives are at the level of consciousness and can be made explicit, but often they lie at the unconscious level where they are hidden from the leader.

The issue of conscious and unconscious intent poses some knotty problems for both leadership theory and research....Unconscious purposes frequently do motivate the leader even though, with the exception of projective techniques, we have few methods available for operationalizing such hidden motives.

The opinion that educational administration differs uniquely from activities in the business, military, hospital and other varieties of administration, has largely given way to the idea that there is more that is common than different about the varieties of administration. Lazarsfeld identifies four major tasks with which all administrators are confronted. He has also argued that these tasks vary in little other than emphasis from organization to organization. These tasks are:

1. The administrator must fulfill the goals of the organization.
2. The administrator must make use of other people in fulfilling these goals, not as if they were machines, but rather in such a way as to release their initiative and creativity.
3. The administrator must be concerned with the human relations aspects of his organization. He must be concerned about the way a person or group feels, acts or believes. The kind of feeling, action or belief determines whether there is good or poor morale.
4. The administrator must try to build into his organization provisions for innovations, for change and for development. In a changing world people and organizations must adjust to changing conditions. The conditions for change must be incorporated into the organization so that there may be a steady process of development rather than a series of sudden, disruptive innovations.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., pp. 28 - 29.

<sup>10</sup>Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Social Sciences and Administration: A Rationale," in The Social Sciences and Educational Administration, ed. by Lorne Downey and Frederick Enns (Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1963), pp. 3-4.

Administration is not a unique activity restricted specifically to educational administration. There are operational characteristics commonly shared in all types of administrations and administrators.

All administrators must fulfill goals of the organization. Even though the superintendent's many functions focus on a single goal, namely, to provide for the best possible education in the community, there are many other short range, intermediate, and long range goals which serve as supportive goals to the main, over-riding goal of instructional improvement.

To attain defined goals, the superintendent must create the conditions in which other people can get things done. This implies:

1. Conditions in which the classroom teacher can perform to the best of his ability.
2. Assisting the school board in the formulation of policies governing the school system.
3. Exercising a key role in the development of general policies affecting the life of the locality or community which the superintendent serves.
4. Encouraging the principal, the staff and others to work toward achieving goals of the school.
5. Seeking a consensus of the parents on the goals of his board, community and staff.<sup>11</sup>

The superintendency is obviously the highest level within the school system, if not the entire community. A superintendent's work involves the management of people, things, and ideas. It entails "the art of manipulating human beings." Planning, economics, law, engineering, logistics, as well as education, are included in the responsibility. Above all, the management function involves corraling all these knowledges into an orderly process of

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<sup>11</sup> Educational Policies Commission. The Unique Role of the Superintendent of Schools, pp. 3 - 4.

getting a job done by people. This management function requires setting goals toward which the coordinated efforts of all participants are directed to achieve the stated goals.

Setting and defining goals is an essential element of the administrative process. Goal setting is inherent in each of the following duties performed by a chief school officer:

1. Defining the purposes and objectives.
2. Developing the broad plan for the structuring of the organization.
3. Recruiting and organizing an executive staff.
4. Delegating and allocating authority and responsibility.
5. Overseeing the general carrying forward of the delegated activities.
6. Insuring quantity and quality of performance.
7. Achieving coordination through committees and conferences.
8. Stimulating and energizing the entire personnel.
9. Evaluating the total outcome in relation to purposes.
10. Looking ahead and forecasting the organization's aims as well as the ways and means for realizing them.<sup>12</sup>

It is the superintendent's task to establish goals and to get people involved in the work set forth to improve programs and attain goals. His approach must vary with the persons he deals with and with the physical and

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<sup>12</sup>Robert E. Wilson, The Modern School Superintendent (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1960), p. 23.

social environment in which they live.<sup>13</sup>

Notwithstanding legal limitations placed upon the powers of the school superintendent, public restrictions that temper his decisions, and boards of education that want to run the show, the superintendent can possess enormous influence to achieve the goals he sets. Goal setting, therefore, is an important and essential element of the administrator's role and the administrative process. The manner in which a superintendent influences others to achieve goals depends on the leadership style that he utilizes. Leadership style and goal setting, therefore, are two complementary elements of the administrative process. The introduction of these two elements together raises the question of whether superintendents place more emphasis on goal setting or leadership style. Both are essential in the administrative process, but self-perceived emphasis on one or the other may have varying implications on leadership processes.

#### Leadership Defined

There is widespread disagreement as to the definition of leadership. Several approaches have been used to study leadership. These can be categorized under the headings of: Trait, Style, Situation, Function and Interaction.

Attempts to explain leadership on the basis of personality traits and characteristics of successful leaders have resulted in failure to isolate leadership traits. Social scientists have concluded that the degree to which the individual exhibits leadership depends not only on his characteristics, but

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<sup>13</sup>John A. Bartky, Administration as Educational Leadership (Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1956), p. 15.



also on the characteristics of the situation.<sup>14</sup>

Another approach to the study and definition of leadership is based on leadership types or styles. This approach traditionally lists four types: (1) the dictatorial leader who motivates through fear, (2) the autocratic leader who uses centralization of authority and no participation, (3) the democratic leader who believes in decentralization of authority and decision making, and (4) the laissez-faire leader who permits the group to establish its own goals and make its own decisions.<sup>15</sup>

Studies on organization and administration have concluded that almost any member of a group may become its leader under circumstances that enable him to perform the required functions of leadership and that different persons may contribute in different ways to the leadership of the group. A considerable body of evidence shows that the productivity of a work unit to achieve a completed goal is affected by the kind of leadership the unit receives. But research literature does not consistently support any one leadership style. According to Huneryager and Heckman, there is no best style. It is the skill with which one applies leadership styles that determines one's personal success as a leader. Not all people can function well under the same kind of leadership. An administrator may vary his style of leadership, but he cannot force people to behave in ways that are uncongenial to their personalities.<sup>16</sup>

It has been found that a person who can assist or facilitate the group most, in reaching group goal achievement, is most likely to be regarded as

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<sup>14</sup>S. G. Huneryager and I. L. Heckman, Human Relations in Management (Chicago: South-Western Publishing Company, 1967), p. 307.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 243.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid., pp. 268 - 285.

the leader. New leaders will emerge when groups are in a period of stress or crisis. Crockett found that when a designated leader failed to provide the leadership function that he was supposed to perform, other members provided the function in order to maintain a minimal loss of effectiveness.<sup>17</sup> Similar results were reported by Kahn and Katz. They found that when managers failed to provide adequate leadership, informal leaders arose in the work group and provided the needed function.<sup>18</sup>

Another approach to leadership developed from a functional orientation to the problem. This developed from research in group dynamics and from the human relations movements. Under this approach, emphasis shifted from a study of the group leader as a person to the study of the group. Leadership is defined as all those member acts that aid in the development of the group and accomplishment of the group's tasks. Thus, leadership may be performed by one or many members of the group. This approach considers both the individual and the situation in which leadership occurs. Styles of the leader can have marked effects upon group member performance.<sup>19</sup>

A further extension of the functional approach was the interactionist approach to the study of leadership.<sup>20</sup> This approach attempts to analyze the

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<sup>17</sup>W. Crockett, "Emergent Leadership in Small Decision-Making Groups," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LI (1955), pp. 378-83.

<sup>18</sup>R. L. Kahn and D. Katz, "Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale," Group Dynamics, ed. by D. Cartwright and A. Sander (Evanston, Illinois: Row-Peterson, 1956), pp. 612 - 627.

<sup>19</sup>Huneryager and Heckman, p. 310.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 316.

interaction between the leader and the group, resulting from a particular leadership style employed by the leader. The basic assumption in this approach is that leadership cannot be studied in isolation because it represents an interaction between members of a group or groups under the influence of a leader. This interaction approach to the study of leadership is science based. Its research attempts to study and analyze the interrelationships between the operating characteristics and the operating processes which determine the leadership style. The operating characteristics focus on the leader's behavior in terms of attitudes, reactions and personality traits, the situation or issue, and the reference group with which the leader interacts. In his interaction with the group, the leader attempts to exert his influence through the communication process toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals.

Rensis Likert found that leader-follower interaction differed quite markedly between productive and non-productive work groups. He found that leaders with the best records of performance focused their primary attention upon the human aspects of their subordinate relationships and attempted to build effective work groups with high-performance goals.

High-productive leaders spent more time in motivating their subordinates, providing structure, keeping them informed, getting their ideas and suggestions on important matters, training subordinates for more responsibilities, trying out new ideas with them, and showing consideration for the follower and his needs.

He found that low-productive leaders demand more from their subordinates than can be done, criticized them in front of others, treated subordinates without respect to their feelings, rode them for making mistakes, initiated actions

without consulting them, refused to accept their ideas and suggestions or even explain the actions they had taken.<sup>21</sup>

Tannenbaum defines leadership as follows:

Leadership is an interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.<sup>22</sup>

The above definition implies that leadership always involves attempts on the part of a leader, as influencer, to affect or influence the behavior of a follower or followers in situation. Therefore, the leader is the individual who exercises positive influence acts upon others; he is one who exercises more, or more important, positive influence acts than any other member in the group; he is an individual who exercises most influence in goal-setting and goal achievement.<sup>23</sup>

The major components of leadership, according to the above theory, are:

1) interpersonal influence, 2) situation, 3) communication process, and 4) direction toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals. To many, an act of leadership has occurred only if specified goals have been achieved. To others, an act of leadership may mean appeasement, keeping the status quo, being popular, being liked without regard to successful achievement of specified goals.

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<sup>21</sup>Ibid., pp. 310 - 316.

<sup>22</sup>Tannenbaum et al., p. 24.

<sup>23</sup>Tannenbaum et al., (The definition subsumes definitions 1B, 1C, and 1E in the Ohio State "Paradigm for the Study of Leadership," all of which have to do with influence.), p. 24.

This theory indicates that leadership effectiveness can be measured to varying degrees when:

1. Specified goals have been achieved and the followers react favorably to the leader's influence.
2. Specified goals have been achieved and the followers do not react favorably to the leader's influence.
3. Specified goals have not been achieved and the followers react favorably to the leader's influence.
4. Specified goals have not been achieved and the followers do not react favorably to the leader's influence.

The above description of leadership treats leadership as a process or function rather than an exclusive attribute of a prescribed role. The superintendent, in his administrative role, may utilize a given leadership process to influence others in a given situation. The process is generally referred to as "leadership style." It is dependent on the objective context of any influence relationship and might include any or all of the following: 1) physical phenomena, 2) other individuals, 3) the organization, 4) the broader culture, including social norms, role prescriptions, stereotypes, etc., and 5) goals, including goals which were defined earlier. And, finally, leadership is concerned with interpersonal influence which is exercised through the communication process. It is within this context that the concept of leadership will be used for the purpose of this study.

### Likert's Approach to the Study of Leadership

It is important for this study to obtain a consensus of understanding that leadership processes and goal setting cut across all types of administrative functions and are not unique to educational administration per se. Therefore, it would not be inappropriate and indefensible to draw on the research findings of a man like Likert and to apply his systems model of leadership to the administrative behavior of school superintendents.

According to Likert, any organization is a human social system that can be described in terms of a fundamental dimension, namely, where it falls on the System One (1) to System Four (4) Continuum. Dr. Likert developed this theory on the systems of management based on more than twenty years of research. He has substituted a systems approach for the piecemeal methods usually employed in efforts to improve an organization. The result is a highly effective management system of leadership processes whose parts are mutually compatible. His complete line of management systems are leadership styles which fall within the dimensional constructs of authoritative and participative leadership processes. The authoritative dimension contains System 1 -- exploitive authoritative, System 2 -- benevolent authoritative, and System 3 -- consultative. The participative dimension contains only one construct, namely, System 4 -- participative group, generally referred to as a democratic style of leadership.

Likert identifies the following operating characteristics which are designed to describe the major categories of operating variables in the exercise of an organizational system or leadership style. These major categories are:

1. Supportive behavior.
2. Motivational forces.
3. Communication processes.
4. Interaction-influence processes.
5. Decision-making processes.
6. Goal setting or ordering processes.
7. Control processes.

For each operating variable or characteristic, Likert identifies several operating processes, each of which can be measured on a continuum depending on where or at which point on the continuum the respondent indicates he falls with regard to that item. The point at which the respondent selects his operating process for the particular operating variable will indicate his self-perceived style of leadership utilized when he interacts with others on a given issue. The interrelationships among these key variables can be portrayed graphically in a profile of organizational characteristics.<sup>24</sup>

Likert's research findings support the perceptions of managers and administrators that management systems which move more toward System 4 (participative or democratic style of leadership) are more productive, have lower costs and elicit more favorable attitudes than do those systems following more to the left, toward System 1.

A science-based management, such as System 4, is appreciably more complex than other systems. It requires greater learning and appreciably greater skill to use it well, but it yields impressively better results, which are evident whenever accurate performance measurements are obtained.<sup>25</sup>

The three basic concepts of System 4 management (leadership style) are: 1) the use of the principle of supportive relationships, 2) the use of group decision making and group methods of supervision, and 3) high performance goals for the organization. The supportive principle is stated as follows:

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<sup>24</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1967), pp. 3 - 46. (Also see Appendix II, pp. 196 - 211).

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 46.

The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.<sup>26</sup>

In applying this principle, the relationship between the leader and followers is crucial. The principle implies that the more often the leader's behavior is ego-building rather than ego-deflating, the better will be the effect of his behavior on organizational performance. It is essential to keep in mind that the interaction between the leader and the followers must be viewed in the light of (1) the issue at hand, (2) the follower's background, values, and expectations or, in simpler terms, the kind of person, persons or group with whom the leader interacts, and (3) the behavior of the leader.<sup>27</sup>

The second concept in Likert's Systems model is group decision making and supervision. Systems 1 and 2 do not use a group form of organization, but consist of a man-to-man model of interaction, i.e., superior to subordinate. System 4 uses an overlapping group form of structure with each work group linked to the rest of the organization by means of persons who are members of more than one group. These individuals are called "linking pins." The interaction and decision making relies on group processes rather than on a one-to-one relationship. System 3 is a mixture of a man-to-man model of interaction and

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<sup>26</sup>Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1961), p. 103.

<sup>27</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, p. 48.



some overlapping group form of structure.

The third concept of effective leadership or organization processes deals with goals, and more specifically with performance goals where performance can be measured. According to Likert's findings, employees wish to be proud of the company they work for and of its performance and accomplishments. By applying this conclusion to the school situation, it can be said that school board members, principals and staff, teachers and parents and the community want to be proud of their school and the school's performance reflected in the accomplishments of its students. An organization's achievement is a "situational requirement" which can be met only when the organization, its departments, and its members have high performance goals.<sup>28</sup> Thus, Likert's concept of management style, translated into leadership style, has two requirements for successful leadership and high performance: supportive behavior and high goals.

Peer-group loyalty, support which motivates, interaction facilitation, interaction influence, goal emphasis and work facilitation are the major leadership dimensions which appear on the scale of operating processes for each operating characteristic.<sup>29</sup>

Likert offers no formal definition of leadership, although he proceeds at great length to describe a science-based theory of leadership style through his Systems 1 through 4 organizational model. The reason for this should be obvious. The traditional theorists placed emphasis on selected facets of

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<sup>28</sup>Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, pp. 112 - 220.

<sup>29</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Values, p. 72.

leadership. In researching his system of management, which in practicality is synonymous with leadership style, Likert introduced many variables which interrelate and interact with one another, depending on (1) the leader's perception of the situation [the issue], (2) the leader's interaction with the person, persons or group on the specific issue, and (3) the operating process utilized by the leader in his interaction with the person, persons or group. In an attempt to synthesize the elements of the definitions of the traditional theorists and the science-based theorists, it appears that:

1. The superintendent acts in an administrative role.
2. The leadership process is not an exclusive attribute of the administrative role.
3. The leadership process is an interaction of many operating variables related to operating characteristics, the combination of which constitutes a certain leadership style intended to influence a person or group of persons on a given issue or under given conditions.
4. The leadership style may or may not be successful in achieving specified goals.
5. A leadership style may be employed in a given situation without emphasis being placed on achieving specified goals.
6. A leadership style may be employed in a given situation with emphasis being placed on achieving specified goals.

An administrator must direct his efforts to achieve specified goals.

Therefore, goal achievement and leadership style to influence people to achieve these goals are important elements of the superintendent's administrative role.

#### Traditional Concepts of Educational Leadership

Much of the literature on educational administration reveals that the construct of "democratic-autocratic administration" is still a widely used description of the type of leadership styles employed in the use of authority and

power in administration. This construct is based on analogy, with the idea of "democracy" brought by that method from the field of political science into the fields of administration. Most writers were clear in their praise of democratic leadership and their condemnation of autocratic leadership.

Campbell and Koopman state that people in general have a misconception of good democratic educational leadership. The most prevalent misconception is visualizing the superior democratic administrator as a person who leads people by the strength of his personality and uses the whip of authority or persuades and sways people through emotional appeals. The authors condemn this viewpoint on the grounds that people who subscribe to this type of leadership style are lending encouragement to the development of totalitarian practices in a democratic state. The dynamic leader is a dominating leader who covets power over people and "almost inevitably he tries to bring more and more people under an overarching plan of domination."<sup>30</sup> Campbell and Koopman would rather leave all programs to the initial acceptance, endorsement, and support of all persons who are in any way and manner connected with the operation of the community school.

Moehlman implies a more conservative viewpoint of a democratic style of leadership when he states that:

In actual practice, democracy is a constant struggle between the individual and the group. At one period the individual may exercise dangerous power, while at others he may appear to be almost submerged and dominated by the group. Since democracy is predicated upon the theory

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<sup>30</sup>Clyde M. Campbell, ed., Practical Applications of Democratic Administration, "The Need for Dynamic Leadership in a Free Society," by Clyde M. Campbell and C. Robert Koopman (New York: Harper and Bros., 1952), p. 47.

of dynamic balance between the individual and the group, organized elasticity is provided so that change can be made peacefully.<sup>31</sup>

The author further states that each individual "shall be mentally, socially and emotionally competent to the fullest possibility of his inborn capabilities." This application of the concept of democracy to educational leadership follows the Jeffersonian philosophy of democracy -- and does not directly condemn nor does it condone a variation of leadership style which would lean towards the autocratic. The definition does suggest flexibility in style, depending on the leader, the followers, the issue and the urgency of the matter. It also suggests that the leader may change his style to fit the situation and the persons with whom he is dealing.

Mort and Ross propose "the home rule pattern rather than the line and staff pattern." "Considerations that are a heritage of the culture" influence the educational leader's attitudes toward educational policy. This type of leadership requires not only an appraisal of educational objectives, but also an appraisal of the reactions of human beings. In other words, the chief administrator is required to size up the general sense of the culture in order to be an effective leader. He must invoke sanctions of the group culture because he believes that all such sanctions are good and should be considered in making a judgment.<sup>32</sup> Sanctions by the community may be good, but Mort and Ross do not make mention of the need to appraise the subject matter or issue of the sanction. However, they do provide a definition of democratic leadership in their explanation of "operational democracy," which is one of the "Common Sense

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<sup>31</sup>Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 11.

<sup>32</sup>Paul R. Mort and Donald H. Ross, Principles of School Administration (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1957), pp. 5 - 30.

Principles" in the "Humanitarian Group." According to the authors, democratic leadership is "to consult with others; to consider the interests and prejudices of those affected by decision making; to consider the dignity of persons of all degrees, to avoid rough-shod riding over the minority."<sup>33</sup>

Some writers doubt the efficacy of a democratic style of leadership under all circumstances, and some even doubt that the analogy between democratic leadership and the idea of "democracy" could stand the test of close critical scrutiny. Brickell, in a recent study of the dynamics of instructional change in the schools of New York, "breaks the bubble of naive acceptance of current theory" when he states that:

The participation patterns ('democratic administration' 'the team approach', 'shared decision making', and 'staff involvement'), in widespread use are very often more than enabling arrangements, organized after an administrator has decided the general direction (and in some cases the actual details) of an instructional change.

His subtle leadership - or undercover direction - is thought by the practicing administrator to be most successful when he can say at the end: "They think they thought of it themselves."<sup>34</sup>

Brickell is quoted to say that setting goals and goal attainment are more important. This suggests that the school administrator should clearly set the goals first, and then be concerned about leadership style.

According to the theorists, all decisions of any importance in the modern school system should involve not only the superintendent, but the entire staff, and each professional employee must feel that he is a part of the team. If all "team members" are to participate on a "share and share alike" basis and

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<sup>33</sup>Supra., p. 34.

<sup>34</sup>Ross L. Neagley and N. Dean Evans, Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 3.

to interact on a horizontally equal plane, the question can be asked: "Where is the flow of authority?" Or, to phrase it differently, "does a flow of authority actually operate?" There is no way of abolishing line authority without making administration chaotic. Neagley and Evans stress the point that the operation of line authority should be consistent with reasonable goals of democratic administration.<sup>35</sup>

The traditional position of many theorists in educational administration establishes educational leadership to be synonymous with a democratic style of leadership and would not allow the practice of any other type of leadership style to any degree. It was stated earlier that the leadership process is not an exclusive attribute of the administrative role. In his administrative role, the superintendent must use a leadership style to achieve educational goals. Yet, some authors say that it is impossible to separate administration and supervision because every administrative activity contributes in some way to the educational program. The two fields certainly overlap, as indicated by Otto.

In the operation of schools today, it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw fine distinctions between administrative, supervisory, and leadership functions. Although there are some activities which fall clearly in one or another of these categories, there are endless numbers of activities which overlap two or more of the rubrics.<sup>36</sup>

The above explanation tends to convey the idea that just as most administrative functions indicate a supervisory function as well, so too, must

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<sup>35</sup>Neagley and Evans, Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>36</sup>Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration (New York: Appletton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944), p. 296.

supervisory functions convey the idea of administrative functions.

Burton and Brueckner further sharpen the problem by stating:

The two can be separated arbitrarily only for the sake of analysis. A separation in function is impossible...mere inspection of the typical division between administrative and supervisory duties would indicate that the division can be only an arbitrary one for purposes of discussion.<sup>37</sup>

The problem is even more apparent when considering the increasing militancy of school teachers since 1960. A "conflict of interest" is inherent in bargaining with teachers. The theory which states that there is no real distinction between administration and supervision becomes weak in this situation. Even if goals are agreed upon, it does not follow that the two groups can be counted on to see eye to eye on how and when the goals are to be attained.<sup>38</sup> In this type of situation, a democratic style of leadership may not always be workable or even attainable.

W. J. Reddin, Associate Professor of Administration, University of New Brunswick, strengthens Brickell's position by stating that an administrator, capable of adaptation to the most intricate managerial style, is of no value to his organization unless the results of his efforts are productivity, accomplishment and effectiveness. "Effectiveness is the extent to which an administrator achieves the output requirements of his position." An administrator's job is

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<sup>37</sup>William H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision: A Social Process (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955), p. 296.

<sup>38</sup>William H. Medlyn, "First Swallow Hard: 'Bilateral Management' is What Teachers Are After," American School Board Journal, CLVI (April, 1969), pp. 12 - 13.

simplified considerably when he realizes that goals, not styles, are his aims. Rather than be concerned about leadership styles, he suggests that an administrator must be primarily concerned with goals.

Reddin describes several leadership styles and suggests the following to be among the most effective when used at appropriate times, depending on the situation and persons or groups with which the administrator interacts: (1) executive, (2) benevolent autocrat, (3) developer, and (4) bureaucrat. As entities, Reddin says, none of these styles is of value. When they meet a situation successfully, however, they are useful administrative tools. The emphasis is not on styles, but on goals. The skillful administrator can use as many of these styles as necessary. Styles should serve the administrator rather than master him.<sup>39</sup>

#### Purpose

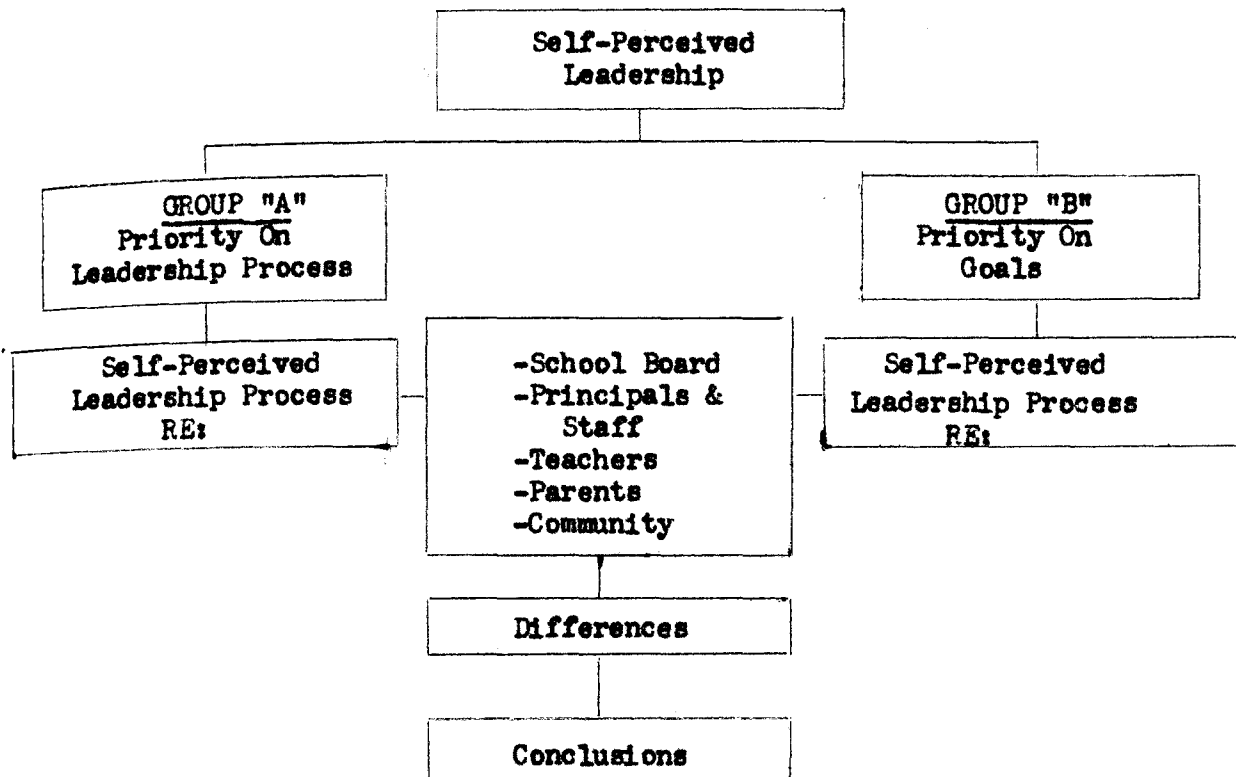
The major purpose of this study is to investigate: (1) whether school superintendents, in their role as administrators, set a priority on goals or on leadership processes, and (2) to investigate the leadership processes of the goal selectors and leadership style selectors, as perceived by themselves in their interaction with (a) school board members, (b) principals and staff, (c) teachers, (d) parents, and (e) community.

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<sup>39</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, "Managerial Criterion Is Output - Not Input," Employee Relations Bulletin, Report No. 1133 (February 19, 1969), pp. 1 - 5.



A schematic diagram of the purpose of this study is given below:



Results of the study will be further analyzed to determine whether the superintendent's self-perceived style of leadership adheres at all times to the democratic style of leadership, or whether the superintendent's self-perceived leadership style varies, depending on the issue and the person or group with which he interacts. The interrelation between issues and groups will also be examined to determine where the differences in self-perceived leadership styles between the two groups exist.

### Method and Procedure

In order to determine the implications of goal selection and leadership style on self-perceived leadership processes related to selected issues, and the person or group with which superintendents interact on those issues, the following hypotheses are formulated for investigation in this study.

- I. Superintendents, in their administrative roles, are more concerned with goal-setting than with leadership style.
- II. Superintendents selecting leadership style over goal-setting possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of their leadership process, within a dimension that ranges from benevolent authoritative to consultative, in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.
- III. Superintendents selecting goal-setting over leadership style possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of a participative leadership process in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.
- IV. Both groups of superintendents, those placing priority on leadership style and those placing priority on goal setting, possess a cognitive perception of their leadership process which rarely operates in the exploitive authoritative dimension, in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents, and community.
- V. Superintendents' cognitive perception of leadership style varies on each relevant dimension of leadership processes, ranging from exploitative authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, to participative, depending on their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.
- VI. Both groups, the goal-setters and the leadership style selectors, do not perceptually adhere to the traditional theory of a "democratic" or participative leadership process at all times.

Two approaches have been utilized in this study. The first was a search through current professional literature for opinions, surveys of results and experiences of superintendents to determine the major current issues which receive priority attention by superintendents in their administrative role. A

review of professional periodicals, discussions with classmates in administrative positions and with school superintendents known to this student have narrowed down the issues to the following items:

1. Instituting curricular reforms.
2. Spending tax dollars wisely; budgets.
3. Maintaining good relations with school boards.
4. Improving administrative techniques.
5. Improving school-community relations.
6. Developing written board policies.
7. Encouraging curricular innovations.
8. Maintaining school discipline.
9. Developing competent school staff.
10. Improving the quality of teaching.
11. Keeping community informed of school programs and problems.

Collective bargaining or professional negotiations, although a problem in any employer and employee relationship, was not selected as a major current issue for this study. The true purpose and real objective of collective negotiations is to resolve legitimate differences over which conflicts arise. The surge of teacher militancy has not had as severe an impact on the school districts, administered by superintendents selected for this study, as it has on other districts, particularly those which are located in large cities. Teacher pressures on school boards for better working conditions in the cities and less affluent communities is probably far greater than such pressures exerted by teachers in middle class suburbs.

The consensus of the superintendents who assisted in determining the major issues selected for this study was that the initial "shock wave" of teacher militancy is beginning to subside. School boards and superintendents are recognizing that teacher unions and associations are here to stay. It appears that more school boards are taking the position that they will reciprocate in such a manner as to maintain harmonious relationships. Negotiations and teacher

organizations are gradually becoming a conventional part of the superintendent's administrative concern. More and more superintendents are becoming active partners with their school board in the negotiation process. The strategy appears to be shifting from the school board's position of accepting the teacher organization as an adversary, to an acceptance of a fundamental situation which spotlights the process through which problems will be resolved in a harmonious way.

Rather than to focus on the process of negotiations as a major issue, the emphasis was placed on selecting those issues over which conflict could arise. These major issues should represent common objectives and interests of both parties during the negotiation process. Outcomes of the negotiation process can and do exert pressures on school finances, thus, creating a major issue of adequate funding, through tax revenue and referendums, to meet the budgets planned for operating the school district. But, research into the process of negotiations is beyond the scope of this study.

The second procedure was the direct interview, through the use of a questionnaire, of twenty-five school superintendents to test the formulated hypotheses. The questionnaire contains three sections: section one collects certain background information on superintendent respondents; section two elicits the superintendent's priority choice of either goal selection or leadership style as a more important consideration in his administrative role; and, section three consists of a questionnaire which attempts to describe the superintendent's interaction with given groups and on selected major issues. Section three of the questionnaire has been adapted from Likert's "Profile of

Organizational Characteristics."<sup>40</sup> Selected operational variables identifying leadership styles have been developed around the above listed issues and related to the specific groups with which the superintendent experiences interaction. The operating characteristics contained in the questionnaire, re-structured for the purpose of summarizing data collected for this study, are identified by letter of alphabet as follows: letter "a" - supportive behavior; letter "b" - motivational forces; letter "c" - character of communication process; letter "d" - interaction-influence; letter "e" - character of goal setting.

The questionnaire was divided into five parts. Each part addresses itself to one of the five interaction groups in this study. There are five questions in each part, and each question is structured around the interrelation between a selected operating characteristic, from Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics," and one of the major, current issues. The superintendent's self-perception of the degree or intensity with which he exercises the operating characteristic on the selected issue with the interaction group was measured on a Likert scale. The point value selected by the superintendent falls into one of the four dimensions of the scale. Each dimension represents one of Likert's leadership processes.

Since financing school systems is of major import in maintaining the quality of instruction, those superintendents who have at their disposal financial resources below the median level will undoubtedly experience more problems

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<sup>40</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, pp. 196-211.

in administering to the needs of their school population. These problems present a greater challenge to the superintendent's leadership ability.

Assessed valuation for the entire Northern portion of suburban Cook County (Chicago excluded) ranges from a high of \$103,897 to a low of \$10,620. The superintendents selected for this study administer school districts with an assessed valuation per pupil ranging from a high of \$40,000 to a low of \$10,620. The smallest district for this study has a student population of approximately six hundred (600) in two attendance centers, and the largest has a student population of eleven thousand (11,000) in nineteen (19) attendance centers.<sup>41</sup>

The school districts administered by superintendents selected for this study are located in suburban areas which have experienced rapid population growth due to the exodus of families from Chicago proper. These districts contain the Northern Cook County suburbs, which have experienced the bulk of the housing starts within the last decade. The population is composed of middle class and upper middle class families.

These school districts are experiencing rapid enrollment growth, while most of the schools in the districts above the median assessed valuation are located in long established communities with very little or no room for new residential development. Most of these districts have not as yet experienced the full impact of racial problems. They are, however, experiencing increased

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<sup>41</sup>William P. Cote (Director of Research), "Suburban Cook County Cost and Financial Resources Report No. 2000," Research Report (Chicago: Educational Service Region of Cook County, Robert P. Hanrahan, Superintendent of Cook County Schools, June 30, 1969), pp. 1 - 5.

pressures from teacher groups, community pressures for progressive curriculum development and increased school facilities.

The exploding population growth in these suburban districts has created many critical issues which are testing the superintendents' leadership capabilities. Community demands for expanded and improved educational facilities have also created mounting problems of school finance. The need for increased revenue to support school expansion programs through increased taxation continues to generate strong resistance from property owners. It is interesting to note from the analysis of the data contained in the research report that nearly all the K-8 school districts whose assessed valuation per pupil is below the median figure fall into that group which is experiencing a shortage of school facilities due to expanding school enrollment.

It is anticipated that the findings of this study will be beneficial to those superintendents who place a priority on leadership style or goal-selecting in performing their administrative role in middle class suburban districts characterized by rapid school enrollment.

#### Limitations and Delimitations

A basic controversy may revolve around the question of goal selection versus leadership style orientation. In the extreme, some superintendents, in performing their administrative function, may be interested in setting and attaining certain goals regardless of concentration on intervening leadership style, and others may be interested in sophistication of leadership style regardless of goals or application of style to goal attainment. As one superintendent expressed himself so aptly in this regard: "Why should I worry about



goals; they have been set for me; all I have to worry about is my interaction with other people, no matter who they are."

The problem revolves around a clear distinction, in actual operating terms, between the superintendent who subscribes to a leadership role definition and his colleagues who subscribe to a role in terms of goals as priorities. It was important during the interviews to make initial identification of these two operating roles so that the interviewee was well aware of what role concepts were being presented to him for selection.

Therefore, for purposes of this study, leadership style was identified closely with "interaction styles" employed to translate others' educational desires and objectives. Goal setting was related to the superintendent's decisions to develop programs on what he thinks is needed to achieve the objective.

The question of role definition can be a problem. New role definitions of superintendents are appearing in the literature. Active, aggressive, passive, dynamic, militant, hardnosed and radical are just a few. The main theme of this study could become easily beclouded with emotional terminology, and for this reason, an effort was made to avoid these descriptive behaviors.

Limitations of the study are inherent in the interview method itself. "Many people are more willing to communicate orally than in writing, and, therefore, will provide data more readily and fully in an interview than on a questionnaire."<sup>42</sup> By observing the respondents' incidental comments, facial

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<sup>42</sup>Deobold B. VanDalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 306.



and bodily expressions, inflections and tone of voice, the interviewer was able to capture information that would not be conveyed in written replies.

The interview was structured, since this type of interview is more scientific in nature than unstructured ones. To keep the interview from getting bogged down, at times other lead questions were introduced in order to clarify questions on the questionnaire and to crystalize responses. Discussions between the interviewer and the respondent provided a friendly climate which appeared to elicit an expression of the respondents' thoughts more freely.

A further limitation of the study concerns the many variables expressed in terms of operating characteristics, leadership processes and interaction groups. It is difficult to extract and control true reactions to issues on which a person interacts with another person or group and in a given situation, particularly because these reactions are elicited from respondents' internalized self-perceptions. Obtaining a true measurement of responses to the inter-relationships of these variables, in terms of leadership processes, is dependent on the respondent's mental attitude at a given time. Responses may be influenced by other non-related circumstances which may interfere with the elements of a situation about which the respondent is being questioned. His attention may be diverted from the issue at hand. Because so many variables enter into the leadership processes, it was important to delimit the number of operational variables and to state each one in terms of a unique operational criterion so that all variables could be distinguished terminologically. It was important for this study to elicit true responses on the scales so that summary measures could be constructed to obtain a comparison between the two groups.

Administrative studies and studies on aspects of the administrator's behavioral process are very difficult to carry out credibly and "they are always a credit to the person who tries to do them."<sup>43</sup> The problem in these types of studies is to choose the variables which are to be manipulated and to determine the effect of the manipulation. Limitations on the dependent and independent variables had to be imposed in order to establish key parameters which would permit a controllable process to collect data, design data collection and summarize data to test the hypotheses. For this reason only five of Likert's seven operating characteristics were selected and only one process was used for each characteristic. The two operating characteristics excluded from the variables in this study are the decision making processes and the control process. These two subjects would require far more extensive research than is within the scope of this dissertation. Therefore, independent variables which enter into the leadership process were delimited to leadership style and goal orientation. Dependent variables, used to quantify leadership styles for various interaction groups, were delimited to: (1) supportive behavior, (2) motivational forces, (3) communication process, (4) interaction-influence processes, and (5) goal setting process.

The study is delimited to public school superintendents in Northern Cook County districts, whose assessed valuation per pupil is below the assessed valuation per pupil for all districts in that portion of Cook County. Another

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<sup>43</sup>Chicago Police Department, Operations Research Task Force, Allocation of Resources in the Chicago Police Department, conducted under office of Law Enforcement Grant #159, Vol. II (Chicago: Chicago Police Department, November, 1969), p. 8.

delimiting factor of this study, which happens to be by fact rather than by design, is that all districts, administered by superintendents included in this study, are of K-8 grade designation, and do not include high-school or community unit school districts. All districts below the median for the fifty-one (51) districts located in the Northern portion of Cook County have this one common characteristic. The study is further delimited by the fact that it is confined to suburban schools in the Chicago Metropolitan area, and within a radius not exceeding 25 miles from Chicago proper.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A number of dissertations have been written on the subject of leadership roles of superintendents and principals, but nearly all of them investigated relationships between role expectations and behaviors of school superintendents. Some studies were conducted on the relationship between a selected variable of the leadership process and its effect on the administrator's relation with some reference groups, such as, confidence and its effect on school board's esteem for the chief administrator. Other dissertations were written on leadership behavior and its effects on morale, attitudes, and actual expectations of selected reference groups. All but one of the dissertations were directly related to the field of education. The one not related specifically to the field of education was a doctoral dissertation from a graduate school of business. This study investigated leadership in formal organizations without suggesting specific application of findings solely to business and industry. The author concluded that his research findings were applicable to any formal organization. Implications were that the school as a formal organization was subject to the same leadership principles.

Kendrith M. Rowland<sup>1</sup> investigated a number of determinants of effective leadership in formal organizations. He used the theoretical framework provided

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<sup>1</sup>Kendrith M. Rowland, "Selected Determinants of Effective Leadership" (Unpublished D.B.A. dissertation, Indiana University, Graduate School of Business, 1966).

in the work of Bernard Bass (1960) for the investigation which led to the selection and development of the determinants.

The author stated that despite the elaborate programs that have been established for selecting, training and developing effective leaders, there is little to suggest what an effective leader is, how to identify him, and what might be done to increase his effectiveness. Many of the generalizations in an emerging theory of leadership are still unsettled. Further clarifications are required of oversimplified assertions and of the meaning and measurement of the integral social-psychological constructs.

Within this general perspective, the study attempted to: (1) test a number of hypotheses concerning the determinants of effective leadership; (2) broaden the base of leadership research through the introduction of a new combination of determinant variables; (3) increase objectivity and precision in the measurement of the determinant variables through the use of standardized and experimental instruments; (4) extend the validation of the measurement instruments; and (5) suggest the applicability of research findings to the selection, training and development of effective leaders in formal organizations.

The study falls within the realm of the situationist-trait approach because it investigates leader behaviors, which occur in the process of leader interaction in the organization, and leader characteristics. These leader behaviors and characteristics are treated as the determinants of effective leadership and include: (1) the leader's consideration of work group members; (2) influence of the leader on superiors; (3) social sensitivity of the leader to the need-want and behavior cues of work group members; (4) the leader's intelligence; and (5) other personality characteristics, such as, manifest needs and life

history experiences. Intragroup variables are omitted from the investigation. The criterion measures are derived from Bass' definition of effective leadership and are identified as: (1) work group task performance, and (2) work group satisfaction.

Hypotheses, generated from a review of prior research, were formulated for testing the interrelationships among and between the determinants and criterion measures. Positive relationships were hypothesized between: (1) certain determinant variables, such as, (a) leader intelligence and influence, and (b) social sensitivity and consideration; (2) certain determinant variables and the criterion measures, such as, (a) leader consideration and influence and work group satisfactions, and (b) leader influence and work group performance; and (3) the criterion measures.

The subjects of this study were fifty-eight (58) first-line supervisors and their six-hundred and seventy three subordinates assigned to two departments of a naval communication depot in southern Indiana. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, the Purdue Adaptability Test, and a modified version of the Role Construct Repertory Test were among the measurement instruments used for the determinant variables. The criterion measures of work group satisfaction and work group performance were quantified, respectively, through a semantic differential and ratings by superiors. Collected data were submitted to a multiple correlation analysis.

Findings showed that leader variables which tend to be related to criterion measures also tend to be related to each other. In combination, these variables provide a preliminary description or model of an effective leader in the two departments studied. Among the leader variables are consideration (as

perceived by subordinates), upward influence, intelligence, and the needs for exhibition and aggression.

There was very little or no positive relationship among and between a number of the determinant (leader) variables and criterion measures. This suggests: (1) the danger of generalizing on the basis of untested hypotheses, and (2) accepting the nominal definitions of social-psychological constructs which have little or no empirical significance.

In another study, Jack Lee Nance<sup>2</sup> investigated the community and educational leadership roles of school superintendents and senior high school principals as perceived by themselves and other influential persons in selected communities of Oklahoma.

The eight selected communities were similar in size of population, level of income, education, and type of municipal government. Perceptions and role expectancies held by Formal Status Leaders and Informal Influential Leaders, about the school superintendent and principals in their respective communities, were obtained by utilizing the questionnaire-interview technique. Collected data were analyzed and the results of the analysis provided the information for the summary statements listed below:

1. There was a close relationship between the past behavior of school administrators and a community's role expectations for school superintendents and principals.

2. The ineffective role of the principal in describing school needs to the people of the various communities was probably due to the insistence of

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<sup>2</sup>Jack Lee Nance, "A Study of the Leadership Role of the Superintendent and High School Principal Within Selected Communities of Oklahoma" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1965).

superintendents and school board members that the portrayal of these needs was almost the sole responsibility of the chief administrator.

3. It seems unlikely that the level of educational leadership in community affairs will improve until such time that school board members develop a different set of role expectancies for the superintendent and principal.

4. The communities received much less leadership in community affairs from school administrators than the community leaders expected.

5. The failure of principals to assume a leadership role in community affairs apparently reflected the attitude of the superintendent.

6. Administrator failure to correctly estimate community attitudes has probably contributed to administrator reluctance to provide the needed purposeful leadership.

7. Superintendents and principals who had the highest status appeared to be those whose behavior was closest to that expected by community leaders.

The author recommends that school administrators at all levels should consider it their major educational leadership responsibility to raise the level of expectation and perceptions held by school board members with regard to the administrative role of the superintendent and principals.

In a third study, Herman Bowman<sup>3</sup> examined how the leader behavior patterns of chief school officers, as perceived by a selected group of elementary and secondary public school principals, related to self-perceived degrees of

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<sup>3</sup>Herman James Bowman, "Perceived Leader Behavior Patterns and Their Relationships to Self-Perceived Variables - Responsibility, Authority and Delegation" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, State University of New York, 1964).



responsibility, authority and delegation.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and the RAD (Responsibility - Authority-Delegation) Scales were used to obtain data for this study. The former instruments were used to measure "initiating structure" and "consideration" behaviors which chief school officers were perceived to exhibit. The RAD Scales were used to measure self-perceived degrees of "responsibility" "authority," and "delegation of authority."

Instruments were sent to selected elementary and secondary school principals in Western New York. Data from 100 respondents were included in the analysis.

A major theorem was developed predicating relationships between leader behaviors perceived to emphasize degrees of responsibility, authority, and delegation. The hypotheses derived from the major theorem were analyzed by applying the t test to differences between means of scores from the RAD Scales for groups of principals who rated chief school officers higher and lower in dimensions, total scores, and differences between dimensions on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaires. Variables used in the study were also intercorrelated and some differences among respondents were analyzed.

The transactional perceptual theory was used to provide the buttressing rationale for this study. The theory states that perceptions are based on assumptions; assumptions are weighted averages of past experiences in dealing with impingements from the environment; assumptions combine to form one's "assumptive world." It was believed that the "assumptive world" of a principal regarding degrees of responsibility, authority, and delegation would be related to perceived patterns of leader behavior.

Findings and conclusions indicate that the transactional perceptual theory

is in accord with the outcome of this study. It was found that:

1. Principals who rated chief school officers higher in consideration behavior perceived themselves as exercising significantly higher degrees of responsibility, authority, and delegation than did principals who rated chief school officers lower in consideration behavior.

2. Principals who rated chief school officers higher in total scores on the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaires perceived themselves as exercising significantly higher degrees of authority (but not responsibility and delegation) than did principals who rated chief school officers lower in total scores.

3. Principals who rated chief school officers showing greater differences favoring consideration behavior perceived themselves as exercising significantly higher degrees of responsibility, authority, and delegation than did principals who rated chief school officers showing greater differences favoring initiating structure behavior.

4. There was found to be no significant difference in responsibility, authority and delegation among respondents when elementary and secondary school principals and principals directly and indirectly responsible to chief school officers were analyzed.

5. Intercorrelation of variables revealed the following:

- a. Principals tended to rate chief school officers alike in both initiating structure and consideration behaviors.
- b. Scores for consideration were related to scores for responsibility, authority, and delegation, while initiating structure scores showed little or no relationship to these variables.

- c. Total scores were related to scores for responsibility and authority, but not to delegation.
- d. Scores for responsibility, authority and delegation were found to be related to each other.
- e. Scores for responsibility, authority and delegation were consistently higher in consideration than initiating structure behavior, particularly, when total scores were higher.

In summary, it was found that certain patterns of perceived leader behaviors related to principals' self-perceived degrees of responsibility, authority and delegation.

James Hanlon<sup>4</sup> analyzed the authority-power dimension of administration. The study was conducted in three parts. Definitions of the terms "authority" and "power" were developed, and their relationship was explained in Part One. In Part Two, the current construct employed to describe the use of authority and power in administration was examined and a new construct was built in terms of administrator behavior. This construct was tested for possible usefulness in Part Three.

A review of the literature on administration showed that many writers found it difficult to deal adequately with the use of authority and power in administration. Furthermore, the definitions used by these writers differed significantly. Subsequent investigation in the fields of administration and political science revealed two distinct schools of thought as to the nature of

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<sup>4</sup>James Mortimer Hanlon, "An Analysis of Authority and Power in Administration" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Buffalo, 1961).

authority and power and their relationship.

Validity of these schools of thought was tested by the use of Aristotelian logic, and in particular, the ontological notion of genus and species. It was found that neither authority nor power was the genus term for the other, but that both were species of another term, "subordination." Metaphysical, proper and causal definitions were established, and the relationship between the two was derived from their causal definitions.

The literature also revealed that the construct of "democratic-autocratic administration" was the currently used description of the use of authority and power in administration. By analogy, the idea of "democracy" was brought by that method from the field of political science into the field of administration. Most writers were clear in their praise of democratic administration, and some rejected the analogy on the basis of definitions only. A review of the literature by this author, as evidenced by referenced material in Chapter One, supports this observation.

This analogy was tested in Part Two. Using the definitions of authority and power which the author established in Part One, a definition of democracy, showing three distinct relationships, was developed. The analogy was tested in terms of these three relationships, by its application to business and education as fields for administration. Not one of these relationships was found in business and educational administration. The analogy of "democratic administration" was therefore rejected as improbable.

To replace the democratic-autocratic construct, a new construct was built in terms of administrator behavior in the authority-power dimension. Descriptions of behavior were drawn and a model was constructed in terms of the placement of

authority and power, sanctions employed, and the arrangement of responsibility for the decision-making process. Three styles of behavior were established -- authoritative, consultative and participative.

The construct was tested for possible usefulness in three ways. In a Critical Incident Study wherein teachers described effective and ineffective behavior by their principals, a panel found all of the effective and 97.5 percent of the ineffective incidents classifiable by the construct. In the second test, the null-hypothesis of no difference in proportion was rejected at the .01 level of confidence, indicating usefulness of the construct as a tool in the study of administrative phenomena, particularly in the areas of principal-teacher relations, principal-other relations, and teacher-other relations. The final test found that the construct was a fruitful source of testable hypotheses when used in combination with other theories and constructs in administration.

Raymond Pietak<sup>5</sup> investigated the relationship between the esteem ascribed by school board members to their chief school officers and school board members' confidence in the leadership of their chief school officers. Although Pietak's study is only somewhat related to this dissertation, it is worthy of mention because the study is an example of how an investigation can be conducted on one of the many variables inherent in the leadership process. In Likert's system, the degree of confidence is an operating process and can be measured in relationship to the issue and the interaction group. All these variables combined make up the operating characteristics. The other feature of importance in this

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<sup>5</sup>Raymond Adam Pietak, "A Study of the Relationship of Confidence in Leadership and Esteem in a Public School Setting." (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1966).

study was the method and procedure used to conduct the investigation.

A random sample of thirty school districts was drawn from the population of 112 public school districts in Western New York. Seventy-seven percent of the school board members of the thirty school districts actually completed and returned their questionnaires, for a total of one-hundred and forty-eight (148) responses.

Three instruments were used in the study. The first instrument consisting of thirty-six (36) specific items to which board members were asked to respond, was the Confidence-In-Leadership Scale. It was based on a rationale which could be described as a two way grid on which one axis represented levels of generality of administrative action and the other axis represented specific administrative task areas. Responses to the items on the instrument were recorded on a six position scale ranging from "almost always feel confident" to "almost never feel confident." The responses were identified and quantified.

The second instrument, consisting of scale items composed of adjectival pairs, was the Professional Esteem Instrument. The adjectival pairs were presented to the board member respondents in the form of semantic differential scale items.

The third instrument was the Social Acquaintance Esteem Instrument which was similar to the Professional Esteem Instrument, except that the instructions to the board member respondents were worded in such a fashion as to create a mind set in terms of the social acquaintance concept.

The statistical treatment consisted of the computation of Pearson Product Moment Correlations between the Confidence-In-Leadership Instrument and the Professional and Social Acquaintance Esteem Instruments. For the first

hypothesis -- that the confidence school board members had in the leadership of their chief school officer varied directly as a function of the professional esteem they ascribed to him -- the PPMC of .70 was significant at the 1% level of confidence. However, the second hypothesis -- which stated that the confidence school board members had in the leadership of their chief school officers varied independently of the social acquaintance esteem they ascribed them -- was rejected. The high correlation of .64 indicated that in this study at least, the two variables were not independent.

This study has shown that, at least on one dimension of administrative behavior, administrators must be doubly conscious of their relationships with subordinate, peer, and superordinate groups. Their efforts to secure esteem from these groups by a wise management of all the situational factors must be considered to be of prime relevance. Administrators must meticulously evaluate all the factors impinging on a decision, especially when it may have wide ramifications for their followers in terms of rewards eventually acquired.

Nearly all contemporary literature on educational administration stresses the importance of the leadership function with which school administrators are legally and idealistically charged. Floyd Emanuel Heinbuch<sup>6</sup> investigated the leadership methods employed by a state department of education while fulfilling that function. Although the focus of the study was on the interaction between one selected reference group and district superintendents, there is some

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<sup>6</sup>Floyd Emanuel Heinbuch, "Analysis of Some State Department of Education Leadership Functions " (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1967).

similarity between the instrument and the behavior descriptions used to record perceptions of leadership in that study, and the questionnaire and the operational leadership processes employed by this author to gather data for his study.

The instrument used by Heinbuch contained descriptions of nine incidents chosen from areas in which school district superintendents (clients) and state department of education staff members (consultants) have frequent interaction. Below each incident were listed four behavior descriptions that a state department staff member might follow in the situation. These four descriptions conceptualized leadership as influence being exerted within one of these four categories. Leadership influence could be exerted by: (1) persuasion, (2) legitimate authority, (3) manipulation, and (4) a coercion type of influencing behavior. The instrument was administered to superintendents and state department of education professional staff members in Texas and Alaska.

The following hypotheses were formulated for investigation in the above study:

1. There would be differences in superintendents' and state department of education staff members' perceptions of methods and influence used in both states.
2. There would likewise be differences between states in the perceptions of leadership methods employed.

Differences in perceptions of methods and influence used in both states were upheld by the findings. Superintendents ascribed more manipulative and coercive behavior to state departments of education staff members than did the staff members themselves. Thus, the first hypothesis was accepted.



An investigation of the second hypothesis indicated that the Texas superintendents ascribed fewer manipulative and coercive leadership methods to their state department of education than Alaskan superintendents did to theirs. Persuasion was perceived to be the method of influencing most frequently used. Both groups indicated this to be the most effective method and coercion the least effective. The legitimate authority method of leading was ranked second most effective, and manipulative was ranked third.

The major conclusion of this study was that leadership methods of state department of education staff members are perceived differently by superintendents upon whom this influence is directed than by state department of education staff members who exert this leadership. Role conflict provides a conceptual framework for explaining this difference.

The present study differs greatly from the other studies in that a comparison of self-perceived leadership processes of superintendents will be made between those who select goal-setting as the primary aim of administration and those who choose leadership style as more important in their role as superintendents. Self-perceived leadership processes will be examined in the superintendent's interaction with five interaction groups. The greatest difference between this study and other studies is that many variables of self-perceived leadership processes will be assembled in quantified form into composite profiles. From these profiles, it will be determined how superintendents perceive their leadership style in general, with specific groups and on particular issues. Differences in leadership styles between the goal setters and leadership style selectors will be analyzed.

None of the reviewed studies made any attempt to investigate the

differences in self-perceived leadership processes between superintendents who place priority on goal selection and those who are more concerned with exercising a leadership style. Rowland investigated the determinants of effective leadership in formal organizations; Nance investigated the differences between leadership role perceptions of superintendents and principals and how influential people in the community viewed them as leaders; Bowman studied the relationship between the degree of principals' self-perceived exercise of responsibility, authority and delegation and the rating which they ascribed to their chief school officers' leadership behavior; Hanlon attempted to develop a new leadership behavior construct in terms of administrator behavior in the authority-power dimension which establishes the authoritative, consultative and participative styles of behavior. Pietak studied only one variable of the leadership process, namely, the degree of confidence of school board members in the leadership of their superintendents. He concluded a relationship between the degree of confidence and amount of esteem ascribed to the superintendent. Heinbuch's study investigated the leadership method employed in different situations involving the interaction between superintendents and the state department of education staff members. However, there is no indication that he attempted to define the operational leadership processes which would relate to the specific behavior descriptions.

The present study also differs from the other studies in that it encompasses interrelationships among key variables of the leadership processes gleaned from the modified systems model of Rensis Likert. The four systems or leadership processes, identified by the related self-perceived behavior descriptions exhibited or elicited under certain situations and in the interaction with five reference groups, are the causal variables. The causal

variable or the type of leadership process will produce an intervening variable, such as, less esteem or more esteem, less group loyalty or greater group loyalty, which in turn has an influence upon the end-result variables. Lower or higher quality of education, little or great community participation in school matters, low or high degree of cooperation by parents and lower or higher quality of professional staff members are examples of end-result variables.

Although it is not within the scope of this study to investigate the end-result variables of the particular leadership processes employed by goal oriented superintendents and leadership style practitioners, it is important to point out the systematic loop through which the complex interrelationships among all these variables can operate.

Of the studies reviewed, Hanlon's and Heinbuch's approaches to the study of leadership behavior are similar to the one used by this author. However, the scope of this study is more expansive; issues have been introduced; more interaction groups are included; a greater number of operating variables are used. An attempt has been made to combine all the variables in a quantified manner on graphic profile sheets which present in some detail the characteristics of the categorical self-perceived leadership processes in relation to Likert's System 1 to System 4 continuum.

## CHAPTER III

### HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AND LEADERSHIP

#### Theories of Administrative Organization

The subject matter of administrative organization theory is of considerable interest to a wide range of people in our society today - on the one hand, to administrators and executives in business, government and education; on the other hand, to economists, political scientists, social psychologists, and sociologists. The application of theories by practitioners from various fields and specific theories of administrative organization, as viewed through the selective perceptions of the above disciplines, present a complex web of thoughts which are difficult to set down into a simple linear sequence of words. The area of focus on the elements and depth of consideration of organization theories must be defined, otherwise the treatment of the theories can become unwieldy. The discussions in this chapter will be focused on the broad concepts of organizational theories, in summary form, rather than on detailed sets of phenomena inherent in specifically selected theories.

Even with this approach, in its broad scope, some categories of subject treatment must be established. The first feature of this concept is that discussions will not focus on the organization structure of the school district. Structures are subsumed to organizational theories. To break into discussions of this second level would obviate the intent of this chapter. Secondly, and as

was stated in Chapter I, there is more that is common than different about the varieties of administration. Organizational structures will vary, but the essence of theories of administrative organization is applicable to many, if not all, organizational structures.

Each organization must have a leader to be an effective organization. The superintendent is the chief school officer and leader of a school district. Leadership processes and goal setting are functions of a leader in an administrative role and these cut across all types of administrative functions, including those of educational administration. Therefore, the review of theories and concepts of administrative organization will include both those originating in the field of public administration and administration in the private sector. In practice, theories from these two fields overlap in the area of educational administration.

### Early Educational Administration

Almost as soon as schools were established in the northeastern colonies, the selectmen of the towns were directed by the General Courts to secure teachers of certain religions and moral qualities. Nothing was said of inspection, supervision and administration of schools. Administrative organization did not have a form. Settlers came to find gold, not to make homes, and it was not until repeated disappointment in the former quest had thoroughly disheartened them that they were willing to accept the serious task of settling down in community style living.

For the first ten years of the settlement there is no evidence of schools. The first efforts to establish a school in the new colonies occurred in 1616

when the Virginia Company contributed one-hundred pounds for a house and several books toward a library. Sir Edwin Sandys, the Treasurer of the Company, was back of this educational movement. The city of London sent one-hundred children to the colony, together with private donations amounting to five-hundred pounds, to aid in their maintenance until they could be self-supporting. The Virginia Company issued the first statement on educational policy in the colonial settlement:

. . . that all these children should be educated and brought up in some good trade or profession, so that they might gain their livelihood by the time they were twenty-one years old, or by the time they had served their seven years' apprenticeship.<sup>1</sup>

Untutored savages and children were to be the students and the words lacked entirely their modern meaning. Thus the first school in this country was established in the Virginia colony. As settlements grew other colonies followed similar patterns in establishing their first schools.

In 1621 a Dr. Copeland collected from passengers on one of the ships of the East India Company seventy pounds to be used in building a church or school in Virginia. A court appointed committee decided that the school was more needed and the money was applied to building the school. But, it was resolved that the "free school" would be erected "for the education of children and grounding of them in the principles of religion, civility of life, and humane learning."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Edwin Grant Dexter, A History of Education in the United States (New York: Macmillan Company, 1922), pp. 1 - 3.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

The Dutch Schools in the New Netherlands had similar beginnings. Usually when reference to a school is found in the records, it is to be the official public school. From the first organization of schools in New Amsterdam, till 1808, when a special board of trustees was appointed, the management and supervision of this school was in the hands of the deacons. No private teacher could follow his calling without a license from civil and ecclesiastical authorities.

Dorchester was the site of the first school in the New England Colonies. In 1645 the town appointed a committee of three "wardens or overseers of the school." These men, residents of Dorchester, were to hold office for life unless for a "weighty" reason they were to be removed. This first school committee appointed by any municipality in this country put the schools in touch with the town meeting, and no doubt laid the foundation of our present district school board. At that time the clergy were the acknowledged educational leaders. The focus of this movement was more on the religious than the academic aspects of education.<sup>3</sup>

The beginnings of public responsibility for inspection took place in 1709, in Boston, where the first committees were appointed to visit and inspect the plant and equipment and to examine pupil achievement. Later these committees criticized and advised teachers concerning their teaching and teaching methods. Between 1714 and 1719 both ministers and selectmen served on these committees. From about 1721 other citizens from the community were invited to join the committees.

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 12 - 56.

Supervisory or administrative duties were not allocated to principals or superintendents until comparatively modern times. The superintendent of schools appeared on the educational scene in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. Boards became jealous of the superintendent because he assumed responsibility over the administrative and supervisory functions which were previously vested with board members. Supervision and administration were used interchangeably, with more frequent reference being made to the word "supervision."<sup>4</sup>

From its earliest beginnings the term "supervision" or "administration" in the field of education has carried with it authoritarian, inspective, and, in general, unpleasant connotations.<sup>5</sup> The first modern statement and concept on administrative organization, under the label of "supervision," was presented by Burton in 1922. His theory proposed an organization properly administered to provide (1) the improvement of teaching, (2) the improvement of teachers in service, (3) the selection and organization of subject matter, (4) testing and measuring, and (5) the rating of teachers.<sup>6</sup>

In the light of present knowledge this definition does not distinguish critically between major and minor functions. There is still the persistence of the earliest ideas of supervision, namely that it is concerned rather directly

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<sup>4</sup>A. S. Barr, Wm. H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision (New York: Appleton - Century - Crofts, Inc., 1947), pp. 3 - 5.

<sup>5</sup>Kimbal Wiles, Supervision for Better Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice Hall, 1955), p. VII.

<sup>6</sup>Barr, Burton, Brueckner, Supervision, p. 5.



with improving the work of the teacher. No fine distinctions are drawn between administrative, supervisory, and leadership functions.

The history of American school administration is a story of unification and standardization: of progress from the chaotic conditions under which each little hamlet was doing just about what it pleased with its schools, without any intervention or hindrance from anyone outside the community, or adequate supervision by any within it, to conditions under which it is fully recognized that schools must be maintained through appointed responsible officials, competent in administering the organization which evolved for the purpose of meeting the educational needs of the pupil. The evolution has been from a state of decentralization bordering on anarchy, to one in which there is at least a sufficient degree of centralized power. In this movement toward uniformity various units of organization, and therefore of administration, have been set up. These units of administration are on the district, city or town, county and state levels.

#### Political Science and Public Administration

The field of school administration is relatively new as a special realm of study, though the practice is almost as old as civilization. The term is roughly synonymous with that of management. Besides referring to the process or activity of managing people and materials, the term is regularly used to designate the person or persons, the officials, in charge of the activity. The confines within which these activities are conducted is the organization in its

formal or informal aspects.<sup>7</sup> Administration attained importance in government and business long before it did in education. It first came to light in the field of political science and in the engineering activities of states. The political scientist distinguished one behavior from another through "abstractive differentiation." Certain behaviors were abstracted from the mass, isolated for close and continuing study, and these constitute the subject matter of a field. Special fields were constructed through a process of "selective perception" and these fields undergo constant reconsideration as organizational functions are changed or modified.

To the political scientist administration is a major political process. Organizational theory is a problem in political strategy. Public administration finds its chief satisfaction in providing a way of looking at government and all of its institutions and agencies.<sup>8</sup> Waldo defined public administration as "the art and science as applied to affairs of state." He also refers to administration as "cooperative human action marked by a high degree of rationality."<sup>9</sup> The traditional conflict has concerned itself over the issue of whether public administration is an art or a science. The scope of public administration is so broad and the disagreements as to content are so numerous that it is difficult

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<sup>7</sup> Jesse B. Sears, The Nature of the Administrative Process (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1950), p. 4.

<sup>8</sup> Martin Landau, "The Concept of Decision Making in the 'Field' of Public Administration," from Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior, ed. by Sidney Mailick and Edward H. Van Ness (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962), pp. 1 - 28.

<sup>9</sup> Dwight Waldo, The Study of Public Administration (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 2.

to extract a clear and concise theory of administrative organization applicable to the administrative role of a superintendent, and less yet, to arrive at a definition of public administration for the superintendent's position. For this reason probably educational administration did not attempt to look toward the political scientist for a theory of administrative organization or administration in its pure form.

The definitions and elements of the administrative process as proposed by Landau, Gullick, Waldo, Pfiffner, Harrell and Weiford, Appleby<sup>10</sup> and Simon were examined by this author in order to synthesize their concepts of public administration into an eclectic definition which could provide a basis for a theory of administrative organization applicable to educational administration.

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<sup>10</sup>Martin Landau, op. cit., His position on the issue suggests that there are an immeasurable number of definitions because there is an immeasurable number of "fields"...because fields are constantly undergoing change.

Luther H. Gullick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization," in Luther Gullick and L. Urwick, editors, Papers on the Science of Administration (New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937), pp. 1 - 40. "Public Administration has to do with getting things done; with the accomplishment of defined objectives."

Dwight Waldo, op. cit. Emphasis is on the organization of men and material.

John Pfiffner and Frank Sherwood, "Organizations as Overlays," from Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior, pp. 373 - 379. Administration is the coordination of collective efforts to implement public policy through processes of the sociometric network, system of functional contacts, grid of decision-making centers, pattern of power, and channels of communication.

C. A. Harrell and D. G. Weiford, "The Manager and the Policy Process," Public Administration Review, XIX, No. 101, (Spring, 1959), pp. 101 - 107. Authors stress politics as the new concept of administration. Administrative officials and their staff are inescapably a part of the total process of government which includes the determination of policy.

P. H. Appleby's views on public administrative responsibility are described by Rowland Egger in "Responsibility in Administration: An Exploratory Essay," ed. by Roscoe Martin, Public Administration and Democracy (New York: McGraw Hill, 1962), pp. 299 - 329. "The ultimate sanction of administrative responsibility is politics; the immediate sanction is administrative hierarchy... with a matrix of abundantly diverse and catholic values and influences for the decisions of a pluralistic society."

The various definitions and theories suggest a gamut of concepts which political scientists attempt to include as principal ingredients of public administration. An analysis of the theories and their elements reveals such terminology as the "field," "category of analysis," political process, political strategy, decision-making, administering the law, the "what" and "how" of government, technical knowledge of a field and techniques of management, organization, direction, control, and coordination; behavior in organizations, an art, a science, the art and science of management, cooperative rational human action, and public policies. It would be difficult to negate any one of the above elements from a theory of administrative organization, although disagreements on some of the elements do exist. Simon<sup>11</sup> focuses on two important clues which, in his scheme, are the heart of administration.

Simon urged the possibility and desirability of a scientific field focusing upon behavior in organization. He stated that public administration must range as far as its problems take it. He tried to separate fact and value in decision making. In Simon's scheme the decision making process and formulation of public policy constitute the heart of the administrative process.

The superintendent is a public administrator, so there is relevance of the theory of public administration to the administrative role of the superintendent. If decision making in the formulation and execution of public policy is the core of public administration, one may question whether this process is an art or a

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<sup>11</sup>Herbert A. Simon, "The Proverbs of Administration," in Public Administration, ed. by Robert Golembiewski, Frank Gibson and Geoffrey Y. Cornog (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966), pp. 420 - 434.

science. It is more than an art because specialization is necessary; it is not altogether a science because certain immutable principles cannot be formulated. Science does and should assist in public administration, particularly where quantification is required. The administrative organization in its functioning elicits a chain of political processes requiring decisions in the formulation and execution of public policies. For the superintendent these policies are educational policies.

There is no need to split decisions between fact and value, as Simon would, because both elements have interplay in decision making. Identification of the two should be attempted but exclusion of one or the other from decision making processes is not feasible. The word "political" before the word processes reflects the new "public policy" orientation. Pulling all the elements together from the suggested definitions and theories, the following eclectic definition of public administration, applicable to the school superintendent, is suggested:

Educational public administration is a chain of political processes requiring decisions in the formulation and execution of educational policies for purposes of government's responsibility in educating its citizenry through levels of organization and management of men and materials.

The political scientists' approach to administrative organization rejects high level goals as guides for action:

1. High level goals provide little guide for action because it is difficult to measure the degree of their attainment, and because it is difficult to measure the effects of concrete actions upon them. The broad goals are thus not operative - nor do they provide the "common numerator" discussed in the chapter on efficiency as essential to a choice among alternatives.

2. Decisions tend to be made, consequently, in terms of the highest-level goals that are operative - the most general goals to which action can be related in a fairly definite way, and that provide some basis for the assessment of accomplishment. The operative goals provide the kernel around which the administrator's simplified model of the world crystallizes. He considers those matters that are reasonably directed to these goals, and discounts or ignores others.<sup>12</sup>

The administrative organization places emphasis upon processes and methods for insuring incisive action.<sup>13</sup> A theory of administration should be concerned with the processes of decision as well as with the processes of action.<sup>14</sup> The construction of an administrative organization involves more than a mere assignment of functions and allocation of authority. Behavior of individuals within administrative organizations must be considered. Simon emphasizes the concept of purposiveness as involving a notion of hierarchy of decisions - each step downward in the hierarchy consisting in an implementation of the goals set forth in the step immediately above. Behavior is purposive in so far as it is guided by general goals but it must be rational<sup>15</sup> to select alternatives conducive to attainment of selected goals.

Administrative activity is group activity and involves decisional

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<sup>12</sup>Herbert A. Simon, "Introduction to the Second Edition," Administrative Behavior (New York: MacMillan Company, 1957), p. XXXVI.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

<sup>14</sup>C. I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 5.

Also, see Edwin O. Stene, "An Approach to a Science of Administration," American Political Science Review, XXXIV (December, 1940), pp. 1124 - 1137.

<sup>15</sup>The difficulty of this concept is the word "rational" which Simon does not explain clearly.

processes. In order to preserve "unity of command" subordinates must accept authority by permitting his behavior to be guided by a decision reached by another, irrespective of his own judgement as to the merits of that decision. Administrative efficiency is enhanced by "span of control" by limiting the number of subordinates who report to any one administrator to a small group (Simon suggests six). Efficiency is increased by grouping workers according to (a) purpose, (b) process, (c) clientele, or (d) place.

To the modern school department is entrusted the care of children during almost the entire period that they are absent from the parental home. It has three principal responsibilities toward them: (1) to provide for their education in useful skills and knowledge, and in character; (2) to provide them with wholesome play activities outside school hours; (3) to care for their health and to assure the attainment of minimum standards of nutrition.

One of the handicaps under which the school board labors is the fact that, except for school lunches, the board has no control over child health and nutrition, and there is little or no coordination between the highly important part of child development program and the rest of the program, which is conducted by the Board of Education.<sup>16</sup>

Simon presents the above example of fundamental ambiguities in the meanings of the key terms according to which workers are to be grouped. The problem also poses a dilemma of choosing between alternatives. He solves the problem with a decision which recommends that the city and county open negotiations for the transfer of all health work for children of school age to the Board of Education.

Principles of administration, according to Simon, must be concerned with the physiology of the human body, the laws of skill training, and of habit. Taylor and his followers cultivated this field successfully through time and

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<sup>16</sup>Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, pp. 29 - 30.

motion study. The determinants of loyalty and morale, leadership and initiative, and influences that determine where the individual's organizational loyalties will be attached are other concerns of an administrative organizational theory. The degree of relationship of specialization in the administrative organization to the specializations of knowledge will determine appropriate decision points. This is Simon's third principle of administration and is related to the term "rational behavior". As employed by Simon, it refers to the rationality when administrative behavior is evaluated in terms of the objectives of the organization. Nonrationality occurs when the individual's aims are in a different direction from the aims of the larger organization.<sup>17</sup>

While educational administration was coming to its own being, in its formative stage, mostly based on principles espoused by political scientists, other theories were being developed in the industrial world. Around the turn of the century, scientific approaches were introduced to the study of administrative organization. The subject matter of educational administration was "not a thing of intellectual beauty." Borrowing fragments from several diverse disciplines, in the same manner as "political scientists" did to develop public administration theories, it lacks a well defined, highly organized body of subject matter. It has no theoretical structure. The mounting interest in the theoretical aspects of educational administration indicates a dissatisfaction

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<sup>17</sup>Ibid., pp. 37 - 43.



with the traditional study of the subject and a desire to formulate a scientific theory of educational administration.<sup>18</sup>

### Science Based Theories of Organization

A scientific approach to administrative organization began when Charles Babbage made an analysis of factory methods and costs in his essay on the division of labor. His observations were the result of the years he spent in working on a "Difference - Engine" to speed up mathematical calculations, a device which was the forerunner of the electronic computer.<sup>19</sup>

In 1885 Captain Henry Metcalfe, Manager of Army Arsenal, brought the word science into the world of administration and management when he advocated the application of certain principles that he felt could make up a "science of administration." Then, in 1886 Henry Robinson Towne suggested a forum from which the principles could be developed, but was ignored for ten years before F. W. Taylor's large scale application of the analytical "scientific" approach to improving production methods.<sup>20</sup>

Taylor's "Scientific Management" sparked a search for theories of organization, but this search has had only a recent impact on the re-examination of principles and practices in the field of educational administration. In the

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<sup>18</sup>John Walton, "The Theoretical Study of Educational Administration," Harvard Educational Review, XXV, No. 3 (Summer, 1955), p. 169.

<sup>19</sup>Harwood F. Merrill, ed., Classics in Management (New York: American Management Association, 1960), p. 13.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 14.

search for a modern theory of organization, three theories have had a considerable influence on administrative thought and practice.

The Classical Theory of Organization deals exclusively with the anatomy of formal organization and traces itself back to F. W. Taylor's interest in functional foremanship and planning staffs. It was built around four key pillars:

1. The Division of Labor (specialization)
2. Chain of Command (every man has one boss)
3. Structure (logical relationships of function)
4. Span of Control (the adequate number to be supervised)<sup>21</sup>

The reorganization movement in public administration pursued the concept of work division in the theories of departmentalization as stated in Luther Gullick's famous essay on organization. Thus departmentalization by function came to be one of the cardinal "principles" in the organization theory propounded by the pioneers.<sup>22</sup>

Fayol, the engineer, developed a "general approach" to management. To promote efficiency in the organization he proposed these elements of administration: to forecast, to plan, to command, to coordinate, to control. According to Fayol, the staff as the "brains" is necessary; detailed planning is required; a theory with general principles applicable to all fields is feasible. The organization should establish "one head" for the corporate body plus many "heads" to assist. Authority must be matched to responsibility. Contrary to

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<sup>21</sup>John M. Pfiffner and Frank P. Sherwood, Administrative Organization (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1960), pp. 97 - 98.

<sup>22</sup>Luther Gullick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization", in Papers on the Science of Administration, pp. 1 - 45. See footnote no. 10 in this chapter.

Taylor's large number of "functional foremen," a "unity of command" and "unity of direction" were vigorously proposed.<sup>23</sup>

Weber, historically regarded as the founder of modern sociology, divided authority into traditional, charismatic, and legal. Pure or "monocratic" bureaucracy is the most rational administrative staff. Labor, hierarchy and rules are characteristic of such a bureaucracy.<sup>24</sup>

The Classical Theory had several deficiencies. It overlooked the contributions of the behavioral sciences and neglected the interplay of individual personality, informal groups, conflict and decision-making processes. Scientific Management was to a great extent a human, perhaps even inhuman, because it tended to reduce man to a machine.<sup>25</sup>

The Neo-Classical Theory of Organization took on the task of compensating for some of the deficiencies of the classical doctrine. Its theorists are identified with the human relations movement. They took the postulates of the classical school and regarded them as modified by people, acting independently, or within the context of the informal organization. These theorists integrated the behavioral sciences into the theory of organization and studied the informal organization, showing its influence on the formal structure. The Hawthorne Studies were the inspiration for this school.<sup>26</sup>

Prior to these studies, the neo-classicists, exemplified by such as Mary

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<sup>23</sup>Bertrand Gross, "The Pioneers: Efficiency," The Managing of New Organizations, Vol. I (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1964), pp. 126 - 136.

<sup>24</sup>Bertrand Gross, The Managing of New Organizations, pp. 136 - 143.

<sup>25</sup>W. W. Cooper, H. J. Leavitt, M. W. Shelly, et al., New Perspectives in Organizational Research (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), p. 60.

<sup>26</sup>S. G. Huneryager and I. L. Heckman, Human Relations in Management, p. 421.

Parker Follett, attempted to resolve the conflict between man and organization. They believed that the only good solution to this social conflict was integration achieved by various forms of coordination between responsible people who had to carry out policies with equal attention being given to all the variables in the social system. The emphasis was on research of the psychological aspects of administration. Conflict was constructive to integration; giving orders must be depersonalized; power is a self-developing capacity; functional and central authority are necessary; function and situation determine authority; coordination is more effective than coercion.<sup>27</sup>

The neo-classicists say that the division of labor causes individual problems of fatigue and monotony, that imperfections in how the scalar and functional processes are handled cause human problems, that human behavior disrupts the best laid plans and thwarts the logical relationships founded in structure. They ascribe this conflict to frictions that appear among people performing different functions. To control this conflict, span of control must be adequate because it is a function of human determinants and not of some preconceived formula. Roethlisberger, who emphasized human relations and skill development, explains and offers a partial solution to controlling a conflict:

An administrative concern is not only an organization for the promotion of economic purposes; it is also a human organization in which the hopes and aspirations of individuals are trying to find expression. In these terms the leader...has two functions to fulfill, an economic function and a social function.<sup>28</sup>

Thus, according to the neo-classicists, the informal organization appears

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<sup>27</sup> Bertrand Gross, "The Pioneers: New Beginnings," The Managing of New Organizations, Vol. I, pp. 150 - 160.

<sup>28</sup> F. J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1946), p. 27.

in response to the social needs of people to associate with others. People have to have face-to-face contact. If they perform similar jobs there is a tendency to group together. Those with similar interests would join together if they are in close proximity to one another. Occasionally special issues will arise causing an impermanent, informal group to form.<sup>29</sup>

These informal organizations act as agencies of social control and generate a culture based on norms of conduct which demand conformity from group members. A conflict with the formal organization could occur.

Sociometric analyses are the scientific tool used to plot the relationships of people in these informal organizations. Informal organizations are characterized by their own unique status and communications systems. Thus, their survival requires stable continuing relationships among members of the group which cause the members to resist change. The neo-classicists look for solutions to overcome this resistance to change by proposing member participation in decision-making situations and control of the "grapevine" information by prompt release of accurate information.<sup>30</sup>

The concept of the social system became an approach to the study and analysis of the interactional climate of the organization. Individuals, their attitudes and motives, jobs, the physical work setting, the formal work organization were all woven into an overall pattern of interdependency called a social system. The neo-classical doctrine, however, suffers from incompleteness, a short-sighted

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<sup>29</sup>Huneryager and Heckmann, Human Relations in Management, p. 424.

<sup>30</sup>Huneryager and Heckmann, Human Relations in Management, p. 425.

perspective, and lack of integration among the facets of human behavior studied by it.<sup>31</sup>

Modern organization theory moved to cover these shortcomings. Its theorists say that the only meaningful way to study organizations is to study them as systems. They rely on empirical research data and integrate findings into the theory. Because they study systems, they must rely on a method of analysis involving the simultaneous variations of mutually dependent variables. Consequently, modern organization theory is not a unified body of thought. Much of the theory is made up of many different contributions from many authors. Thus, it is more useful to discuss the ingredients involved in the systems analysis, the parts, the interactions, the process, and the goals of the system.

The parts include the individual and his personality structure brought to the organization and the motives and attitudes that condition his range of expectancies that he hopes to satisfy by participating in the system. Included in the system are other variables, such as, the individuals or groups who have modified their expectancies mutually to accord with demands of the group, status and role patterns, the role perceptions of each individual, the physical setting or issue on which the interaction occurs, and finally the influence behavior or leadership style which can be measured from the interaction of selected variables. Thus, Rensis Likert, on whose systems model this study was patterned, belongs to the group of modern organization theorists.

Modern organization theorists believe that work cannot be effectively organized unless the psychological, social, and physiological characteristics of people participating in the work environment are considered. All of the parts

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<sup>31</sup>Ibid., pp. 426 - 427.

of the system are linked by processes such as those found in role theory, processes such as communications networks, methods by which attention is evoked from parts of the systems or control and coordinating mechanisms which link the decision centers into a pattern.<sup>32</sup>

Inquiries and findings of modern organization theories have introduced a field of thought and research called "systems theory." Its objective is to put into slices and categorize all the variables, to discover all the permutations and interrelationships among these variables, and to discover their effect on administrative organization. Thus a science of organizational universals appears feasible.

Recently the National Industrial Conference Board queried five-hundred (500) companies, received three-hundred and two (302) replies, and found two-hundred and forty-one (241) companies interested in behavioral science and its application to organizational executive behavior and leadership style. Results of the survey indicated that, in the "sixties," these six theorists and behavioral scientists have influenced administration the most: Douglas McGregor, Abraham Maslow, Chris Argyris, Frederick Herzberg, Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton, and Rensis Likert.<sup>33</sup>

Douglas McGregor<sup>34</sup> describes two sets of contrasting assumptions about man and his relation to work through "Theory X" and "Theory Y." Under "Theory

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<sup>32</sup>Mineryager and Heckman, Human Relations in Management, pp. 430 - 433.

<sup>33</sup>Marvin R. Weisbord, "What, Not Again! Manage People Better?", Think, XXXVI, No. 1 (January - February, 1970), p. 4.

<sup>34</sup>Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 33 - 49.

"X" he posits the propositions of conventional management. These propositions state that, because management is responsible for organizing the elements of the productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends only, management must direct, motivate, control and modify the behavior of its people to fit the needs of the organization. Without this active intervention by management, people would be passive and resistant to organizational needs. They must therefore be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled and directed. All of these are posed in the belief that the average man is by nature indolent, lacks ambition, is self-centered and indifferent to organization needs, is resistant to change, is gullible and not very bright.

In light of new findings, McGregor proposes a new theory for the management of human resources. Using Maslow's hierarchy of needs<sup>35</sup> he postulates that, even though conventional management has largely satisfied physiological and safety needs of the worker, social needs and egoistic needs are important motivators of behavior. The central principle derived from "Theory Y" is that of integration which suggests that management must arrange organization conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives. With proper motivation their social and personal needs can be satisfied so that they will not be passive or resistant, they will exercise their capacity for assuming

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<sup>35</sup> Maslow's motivational theory states that gratification is more important than deprivation. When human needs are satisfied, related goal-directed behavior emerges. The order of needs is important because needs are satisfied in order of appearance. Needs relate to each other. A prepotency of needs exists, meaning that the intensity of non-satisfaction increases as we proceed higher up in the hierarchy of needs. A need, higher in the structure takes precedence over the lower one, and if the lower one is not satisfied, the higher need could be difficult to satisfy. The order of needs in Maslow's hierarchy is as follows:



responsibility and they will develop a readiness to direct their behavior toward organization goals.

Abraham Maslow, a theoretical psychologist, described a "need hierarchy," suggesting that motivation proceeds up a ladder of human needs, with physiological needs at the base.<sup>36</sup>

Chris Argyris<sup>37</sup> studied the interaction between an individual and organizations and is an advocate of efforts to build consistency between individual and organizational goals. Argyris dwells on the personality concepts and attributes to it such characteristics as: (a) it seeks adjustment and adaptation; (b) it is propelled by psychological and physical energy; (c) it is located in the need systems; (d) it is expressed through abilities; (e) the personality organization is called the "self" which tends to develop along a spectrum from one position to another. Argyris protects the personality and in its interaction with the organization he labels the organization as a scoundrel which works against the progressive psychological development of an individual personality. He advocates effective leadership behavior which would "fuse the individual and the organization in such a way that both simultaneously obtain optimum self-actualization."<sup>38</sup> This process would lend itself to giving direction toward a

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(1) physiological needs, (2) safety, (3) love, (4) esteem, (5) self-actualization, and (5) need to know and understand.

See A.H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review*, L (March, 1943), pp. 370 - 396.

<sup>36</sup>Marvin R. Weisbord, op. cit. (Also, see footnote number 35.)

<sup>37</sup>Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization: The Conflict Between Systems and the Individual (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957).

<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 211.

congruency between the needs of healthy individuals and the demands of the formal organization. Frustrations, failures and conflict would be reduced and the subordinate would focus on the whole (organizational needs) rather than solely on the parts (his own needs). Reality - oriented leadership may minimize the difficulties.

Frederick Herzberg, in Work and the Nature of Man, (1966), confirmed and elaborated upon his earlier Motivation - Hygiene Theory. Fringe benefits, working conditions, etc., are hygiene factors, essential but not motivating. Factors which motivate people to perform better - to perform tasks for achievement of goals - are responsibility, achievement, recognition, and growth opportunities.<sup>39</sup>

Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton wrote Managerial Grid and integrated the research of Likert, Argyris, McGregor and many others into a tool for analyzing and attempting to change organizations and management styles, based on the balance between one's concern for accomplishing and concern for people. The authors have posed a model which they call the Managerial Grid as an inclusive statement for orienting managerial actions. In this grid the nine (9) theory meets the basic need of people which is to be involved and committed to <sup>the</sup> accomplishment <sup>of organizational goals.</sup> ~~are~~ Concern for people and concern for accomplishment are measured on a vertical and a horizontal axis each of which is scaled from one to nine, or from low to high. Its aim is to integrate the two aspects of work, people and production, under conditions of high concern for both. Measurement of effectiveness is the key to evaluation on the grid. Involvement and participation in team action is the suggested process that leads to high organizational

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<sup>39</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964), pp. 180 - 318.

accomplishment.

Rensis Likert, a psychologist and sociologist, whose works have already been mentioned, showed that an organization is a complex system in which leadership process, motivational forces, character of communication process, interaction influence and character of goal setting tend to vary together. Likert maintains that these variables can be related closely to organizational effectiveness.

#### Recent Developments in Educational Administration

As a field of study, educational administration is undergoing radical change. The field is no longer neatly defined. The new science based theories have had such an impact that the subject is undergoing close scrutiny and re-evaluation. The study and practice of administration has been becoming more scientific. The ferment began in 1946 and 1947 when (a) the Kellogg Foundation received a recommendation that school administration was a field which deserved Foundation support, (b) The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) included in its statement of goals for the association "the initiation of studies and programs toward further professionalization of the superintendency," and (c) in 1947 professors of educational administration, under the leadership of Paul Hanna of Stanford, and Maurice Seay and Ralph Tyler of the University of Chicago, formed the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) which was to focus on the scientific study of administration, the elements of leadership, and dissemination of updated practices encountered in the preparation of school administration. In 1950 the NCPEA, through funds obtained from the Kellogg Foundation, initiated the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) to study the school superintendency

and ways to improve school administration.<sup>40</sup>

In 1960, Griffiths optimistically observed: "Many changes have occurred recently, with remarkable rapidity and with almost a single stimulus (Cooperative Program in Educational Administration)...the emphasis on preparation is moving toward the true content of administration - people."<sup>41</sup>

Paralleling, if not antedating, the recent development of administrative theory has been an unprecedented concern with the study of leadership. Investigations and studies by scholars in such distinct yet related fields as anthropology, business management, industrial relations, psychology, public administration, and sociology have produced significant findings which illuminate the study and practice of educational administration. Have the new theories had any effect on the administrative behavior of the superintendent? There seems to be some evidence that the scientific approach to administrative organization shows traces of an emerging superintendent with a significantly different style of leadership. A more dynamic definition of the superintendency may be gaining acceptance - but putting it into practice is difficult. Results of a survey reported in School Management indicate that a new breed of active rather than passive superintendents, although in the minority, is emerging. The new dynamic superintendent describes his function of superintendent as that of developing

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<sup>40</sup>Hollis A. Moore, Jr., "The Ferment in School Administration," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, edited by Daniel E. Griffiths et al. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 15.

<sup>41</sup>Daniel E. Griffiths, "New Forces in School Administration," Overview, I (January, 1960), pp. 48 - 51.

programs on what he thinks is needed rather than translating the community's educational desires and objectives into programs.<sup>42</sup>

### Theories of Leadership

Lipham stated that leadership roles in structured organizations are, indeed, complex. He suggests caution on the use of methodology and interpretation of findings of leadership studies concerned with small, unstructured, randomly selective groups. Such findings may be of only limited value when transplanted indiscriminately to large, complex, hierarchical organizations.

An example which may be cited is the notion of "democratic" leadership, which has been so eminently popular in the field of educational administration for many years. Derived largely from White and Lippitt's classic studies of five member hobby clubs composed of ten-year old children, the concept of "democratic" leadership was yanked from its referents in research, equated with all that is "good" and persistently preached as the only appropriate leader behavior for solving all operational problems within complex educational organizations. Needless to add, the meaning of the term, hence its usefulness, suffered. It was found that this loosely defined political concept, which has been seized as a panacea indeed hindered more potential leaders than it helped. The major source of error, however, resided in the fact that a host of organizational realities were usually ignored - if not zealously scorned.<sup>43</sup>

To avoid the repetition of such an error it is necessary to distinguish between administration and leadership. Theories of administrative organization discussed in the previous section of this chapter when related to theories or definitions of leadership will make this distinction clear. Administration,

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<sup>42</sup>A. Adams and J. E. Doherty, "A New Kind of Superintendent," School Management, XIV (February, 1970), pp. 23 - 24.

<sup>43</sup>James M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, The Sixty-third Yearbook, p. 125.

according to Lippman, is the utilization of existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective. Leadership, however, is related to the action or process of initiating new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing these goals and objectives.<sup>44</sup> The various approaches to the study of leadership, some directly related to educational leadership and others broad in scope, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Social scientists continue to shift their focus from one aspect to another in their theoretical formulations of the leadership concept. Early leadership research focused on the leader himself, to the exclusion of other variables. Leadership effectiveness was explained by isolating psychological and physical characteristics, or traits. The leader was differentiated from other members of his own group by traits and characteristics. Little agreement has been reached as to the most useful traits. Studies guided by this assumption generally proved to be inconclusive.<sup>45</sup> Goulder reviewed some of the empirical and interpreted evidence relating to "universal traits" and concluded: "At this time there is no reliable evidence concerning the existence of universal leadership traits."<sup>46</sup>

The trait approach gave way to the situationist approach. The situationists do not completely abandon the search for significant leader characteristics, but

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<sup>44</sup>Supra, p. 122. Also, John K. Hemphill, "Administration as Problem Solving," in Andrew W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1958), p. 107.

<sup>45</sup>Tannenbaum et al., pp. 22 - 23.

<sup>46</sup>Alvin W. Goulder (ed), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), p. 34.

they attempt to look for them in situations containing common elements. Stogdill made the following conclusions after examining a large number of leadership studies: "The qualities, characteristics and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader".<sup>47</sup>

The follower approach became the next aspect to be considered in leadership research. This approach considers the follower as a major variable. It focuses on personal needs and assumes that the most effective leader is the one who most nearly satisfies the needs of his followers.<sup>48</sup>

The trait approach, the situationist approach, and the follower oriented approach have variously been discussed and evaluated by many authors. Sanford seemingly accepted these three approaches and formulated an eclectic, comprehensive theory of leadership.

It now looks as if any comprehensive theory of leadership will have to find a way of dealing, in terms of one consistent set of rubrics, with the three delineable facets of the leadership phenomenon:

1. The leader and his psychological attributes.
2. The follower with his problems, attitudes, and needs, and,
3. The group situation in which followers and leaders relate with one another.

To concentrate on any of these facets of the problem represents oversimplification of an intricate phenomenon.<sup>49</sup>

Coladarci and Getzels raise the question of why educational administration,

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<sup>47</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, XXV (January, 1948), p. 63.

<sup>48</sup>Fillmore H. Sanford, Authoritarianism and Leadership (Philadelphia: Institute for Research in Human Relations, 1950), Chap. I.

<sup>49</sup>Fillmore H. Sanford, "Research in Military Leadership", Current Trends: Psychology in the World Emergency (Pittsburg: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1952), pp. 45 - 59.

as a professional field, is so adverse to theory. Their conclusions would indicate that the theoretical approach to leadership and leadership style is generally unacceptable to educational administrators. In speaking of the habits or beliefs which precluded intelligent consideration of theory on the part of educational administrators, they state:

Among the most apparent of these are: 1) a commitment to factualism, 2) an unwarranted respect for the authority of "experts" and "laws", 3) fear of theorizing, 4) an inadequate professional language, and 5) a frequent tendency to become emotionally identified with one's own views.

To these five, Griffiths adds a sixth, namely, the lack of understanding of what theory is.<sup>50</sup>

Other theoretical definitions proposed by authors on educational leadership are given below:

Anderson and Davies:

Leadership does not result because a person possesses a magical combination of traits or characteristics. It is important to distinguish between those who occupy positions of authority and those who are "operational" leaders. It is customary to speak of the former as "status" leaders, and the latter as "functional" leaders. Status leaders have titles such as chairman, mayor, president, superintendent, or principal. A "functional" leader is one who is acknowledged and accepted by a group, whether or not he holds a status position.<sup>51</sup>

John A. Bartky:

In so far as leadership is concerned with influencing people, leadership may be

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<sup>50</sup> Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959), p. 8, quoting Arthur P. Coladarci and Jacob W. Getzels, The Use of Theory in Educational Administration (Stanford University Press, 1955), p. 10.

<sup>51</sup> Vivienne Anderson and Daniel R. Davies, Patterns of Educational Leadership (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 19.



classified according to the manner in which it exerts this influence, namely:

1. Influence by example and by teaching.
2. Influence by mediation
3. Influence by coercion.<sup>52</sup>

Clyde M. Campbell and G. Robert Koopman:

In a free society the leader, as such, does not exist because leadership is diffused among all and is a characteristic which flits from person to person according to the demands of the situation. With some oversimplification, it can be said that the leadership in a free society consists largely of the sum total of the creative activities of its active members - e.g., members of the civic planning association, members of boards of directors of corporations, and volunteer solicitors for the community chest - rather than the sum total of the activities of a group of titular leaders.<sup>53</sup>

In the above definition, everyone is a leader because "leadership and citizenship are related concepts."<sup>54</sup> The leadership and followership concept belong to a totalitarian philosophy. One leader and many followers structure a hierarchical, authoritative pattern of living. However, this concept does not preclude individual leadership in many fields because multiple leadership roles are for the best interests of the individuals and for the society in which live.<sup>55</sup>

Robert L. Saunders, et.al.:

Leadership is essential to improved educational programs. Educational leadership is any act which facilitates the achievement of educational objectives. Leadership may be performed by the status leaders, by any

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<sup>52</sup>John A. Bartky, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>53</sup>Clyde M. Campbell, op. cit., p. 47.

<sup>54</sup>Ibid., p. 35.

<sup>55</sup>Ibid.

members of the group, or by the group as a whole.

Instructional improvement is the achievement of a set of objectives which seem to be directly and purposely related to improved learning experiences for students. The objectives should be determined by the participants who make the effort and have the responsibility for improving instruction.

Cooperative group effort is the most acceptable and effective approach in reaching a goal that is satisfactory to and meets the needs of the total group. People who work together in groups have a contribution to make to each other and each can help achieve the objective of the group. A cooperative group effort facilitates changes in the behavior of group members and changes in behavior are necessary to reach educational goals.<sup>56</sup>

Jack R. Gibb:

People must be led. It is the responsibility of the leader to marshall the forces of the organization, to stimulate effort, to capture the imagination, to inspire people, and to serve as a model of sustained effort. He must set clear goals for himself and for the group or institution, and then communicate these goals well to all members of the organization.<sup>57</sup>

Some of the operating characteristics of an authoritarian, paternalistic, or conservative leadership style are: knowing what to do, listening for advice and counsel, making decisions, seeing that decisions are implemented, making policy and rules, rewarding good performance, being able to criticize negatively, commanding strong discipline, and communicating care and concern through strength and firmness. According to this oversimplified statement of one view of leadership theory and practice, leaders are born and not made.

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<sup>56</sup>Robert L. Saunders, et al., A Theory of Educational Leadership (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966), p. 39.

<sup>57</sup>Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, ed., Organizations and Human Behavior, "The Interaction Influence System," by Jack R. Gibb (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969), p. 316.

An alternative viewpoint of leadership theory holds that people perform better when they set their own goals, choose activities that they see as related to these goals, and can make their own choices from a wide range of alternatives. The leader acts as a catalyst, a consultant, and a resource person assisting the group. Thus the leader is not necessary to the group and quickly becomes replaceable, dispensable and independent. The good leader tends not to lead. He is a person in the group as a person, and not as a role.

The first view of leadership theory and practice is a "defensive" or authoritarian leadership style. It is particularly appropriate to some viable aspects of the culture we live in. It was inherited from the medieval church and the military. A vertical hierarchy, prescribed role responsibilities, and delegated authority are characteristics of the defensive style of leadership. The current dominant values of efficiency, excellence, productivity, task performance, and perfectionism evoke this type of leadership style. It belongs in the world of automation, programming, data processing, and engineering; to a persuasive, public relations and marketing mode of interpersonal commerce. Fear and distrust is the dynamic of the defensive model. The underlying fears of the leader, camouflaged by the leader's behavior, support the strategic, manipulative, and controlling behavior. "Defensive leadership is characterized by low trust, data distortion, persuasion, and high control."<sup>58</sup>

These defensive techniques of leadership produce certain predictable results. Fear and distrust beget fear and distrust. Counter-strategies are developed to distort the upward-flowing data; reports are "doctored" to please

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<sup>58</sup>Ibid., pp. 316 - 320.

administrative goals or directives. Persuasion brings about resistance. High control brings about hostility.

The second view of leadership theory and practice provides the key to emergent leadership which centers in a high degree of trust and confidence in people. This approach to leadership practice also establishes the operational leadership processes as alternatives to defensive leadership, some of which are: trust and confidence in people; permissiveness in goal setting; to be non-controlling in personal style and leadership policy; participation in cooperative determination of goals; and creating a climate in which there is no need to impose controls.<sup>59</sup>

Since the end of World War II, new developments have occurred in educational administration. The psychological, sociological and behavioral scientists began to confront theory with evidence. Attempts were made to operationalize the concepts contained in the principles of administrative theory. The present posture continues toward operationalizing concepts, testing propositions, and developing theories based upon evidence.<sup>60</sup>

Until recently, the shifting sands of practitioner judgement were the major if not the only source of knowledge about how to organize and run an enterprise. Now research in leadership, management, and organization, undertaken by social scientists, provides a more stable body of knowledge than has been available in the past.<sup>61</sup>

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<sup>59</sup>Ibid., pp. 320 - 324.

<sup>60</sup>Daniel E. Griffiths, ed., Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Chapter I, "The Theme", by Griffiths, et al. (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 3.

<sup>61</sup>Lensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 1.

Theories of leadership, and the definitions of leadership derived from these theories, rely on key assumptions made by well-known practitioners of administration and reflect the general principles they expound. Practitioners' points of view vary one from the other and through time as new schools of thought develop. As the influence of the theorist and the practitioner of the specific theory wanes, principles and practices based on his judgement are discarded and new ones embraced.

Hemphill describes leadership in terms of the organizational context and the operational aspects of the organization as a social system. He defines leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives, or for changing an organization's goals and objectives.<sup>62</sup> The emphasis is upon initiating change.

The frequency of leadership acts, that is, how often the superintendent engages in leadership behavior, is a crucial factor. As Hemphill has indicated, leadership behavior includes the following classes of acts:

1. Attempted leadership: acts which are accompanied by an intention of initiating a structure-in-interaction.
2. Successful leadership: acts that have initiated a structure-in-interaction during the process of mutual problem solving.
3. Effective leadership: acts that have initiated a structure-in-interaction that has contributed to the solution of a mutual problem.<sup>63</sup>

The failure of numerous psychological investigations of leadership to

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<sup>62</sup> John K. Hemphill, "Administration as Problem Solving," in Andrew W. Halpin, Administration Theory in Education (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 98.

<sup>63</sup> Supra, pp. 106 - 106.

synthesize the results of these studies in order to discover a personality syndrome universally characteristic of leaders has already been mentioned. Further support of this conclusion is evidenced by Gibb's statement that "numerous studies of leaders have failed to find any consistent pattern of traits which characterize leaders."<sup>64</sup>

The sociological approach to the study of leadership is concerned with the organizational dimensions of leadership. Organizational variables or group dimensions measure the impact of the leader. Hemphill set forth major dimensions which distinguish one group from another, and which measure the differences in the impact of the leader on the particular group. He identified the following fifteen group dimensions: size, viscidty, homogeneity, flexibility, stability, permeability, polarization, autonomy, intimacy, and control; and position, participation, potency, hedonic tone, and dependence (expressing a respondent's relation to his group). Hemphill found that viscidty (feeling of group cohesion) and hedonic tone (the degree of satisfaction of group members) correlate more highly with leadership adequacy than did the other dimensions.<sup>65</sup> This approach to researching leadership is concerned with evaluating and measuring the influence the leader has on all the operational variables within a group and the degree to which each variable contributes to the satisfaction of group needs.

The behavioral studies of leadership are concerned with both the psychological and sociological (organizational approach) dimensions. Halpin explains

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<sup>64</sup>Cecil A. Gibb, "Leadership," in Handbook of Social Psychology, edited by Gardner Lindzey, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1954), p. 889.

<sup>65</sup>John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1949).

the approach to the study of leadership as follows:

First of all, it focuses upon observed behavior. No presuppositions are made about a one-to-one relationship between leader behavior and an underlying capacity or potentiality presumably determinative of this behavior. By the same token, no a priori assumptions are made that the leader behavior which a leader exhibits in one group situation will be manifested in other group situations...Nor does the term...suggest that this behavior is determined either innately or situationally. Either determinant is possible, as is any combination of the two, but the concept of leader behavior does not itself predispose us to accept one in opposition to the other.<sup>66</sup>

Halpin defines two dimensions of leadership - initiating structure and consideration - as significant dimensions describing leader behavior.

1. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his work group, and in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods of procedure.
2. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.<sup>67</sup>

Results of an intensive study, conducted by the staff associates of the University of Chicago Midwest Administration Center, utilizing the dimensions as a perceptual screen for observing on-the-job behavior of superintendents from four midwestern communities, showed the usefulness of the dimensions for describing leader behavior. For example, superintendents were found to initiate structures such as the following: a joint committee of maintenance supervisors and instructional supervisors to establish a school for custodians, a new procedure for assigning the use of school facilities during evening hours, and a change in responsibility for revising student handbooks from a committee of

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<sup>66</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1959), p. 12.

<sup>67</sup>Supra, p. 3.

principals to a representative committee of principals, teachers and students.<sup>68</sup>

Getzels and Guba developed a theory from which were derived the "nomothetic" and "idiographic" styles of leader behavior. These leadership styles bear some similarity to initiating structure and consideration dimensions. The nomothetic leadership style is defined as one which places emphasis upon organizational role expectations; the idiographic leadership style places emphasis upon individual need dispositions.<sup>69</sup>

The effort to manage all of an organization's resources, including its management or leadership style and behavior, in relationship to each other is called "organization development," or (O.D), a new discipline which may have a profound impact on all types of management in the seventies. Many administrators already feel uneasy with the rigid, army-type organizational form which dominates our society. Other administrators feel uneasy with the completely participative and democratic decision making process which often confuses and delays organizational effectiveness. Yet, behavioral scientists Warren G. Bennis and Phillip E. Slater see temporary systems and democratic decision making as essential features of "post-bureaucratic" administration.

Many formidable "restraining forces" impede the use of behavioral research:

We have no precedent for organizing in new ways. From public school on, as Chris Argyris has pointed out, we experience a world which talks a lot about "responsibility" and "self-control," but offers few chances to use or to be rewarded for those qualities. We have learned

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<sup>68</sup> Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," pp. 135 - 136.

<sup>69</sup> J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), pp. 423 - 441.



to be expert talkers about building a better world, but we have hardly begun to develop the kind of school system to teach it.<sup>70</sup>

Although many theories of leadership behavior were derived from organizational schemes tested and observed in industry, there is no evidence that specialists researching leadership behavior in education have excluded the application of the findings to studying and researching the behavior of the educational administrator and school organization. On the contrary, Maslow, Argyris, and Likert have, through their research findings, whetted the appetites of the theorists and practitioners of educational administration.

Much has been written about educational leadership styles, but there is very little evidence of contemporary research and study in the area of developing a valid instrument which could measure educational leadership practices in terms of group and situational factors. The need for such an instrument was recognized by Jasper J. Valenti and C. W. Nelson who jointly developed the "Survey of Educational Leadership Practices." The validated instrument was a result of two independent research studies conducted by each author respectively.<sup>71</sup>

Nelson<sup>72</sup> approached the leadership process in industry by studying the "internalized attitudes" of foremen and other leaders in an industrial hierarchy.

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<sup>70</sup>Ibid., pp. 2 - 6.

<sup>71</sup>J. J. Valenti and C. W. Nelson, "Survey of Educational Leadership Practices," (An instrument used to measure leadership practices in various problem situations, based on the informal aspects of interpersonal relations), University of Chicago, copyright, 1955.

<sup>72</sup>Charles W. Nelson, "Development and Evaluating of a Leadership Attitude Scale for Foremen" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, 1949).

These internalized attitudes were related to the product of the interacting personalities of the reference groups and the factors in the group situation. The leadership process was viewed as mainly one of maintaining effective communication. From this viewpoint Nelson tried to determine the attitudes of various levels in the hierarchy toward the role of the foremen. By administering his leadership scale to 220 foremen of a large manufacturing concern, he helped validate his hypothesis that attitudes of leaders would fall on a continuum of communication representing four leadership types: 1) Dependent type, 2) Self-sufficient type, 3) Manipulative type, and 4) Integrative type. The study showed that attitudes of foremen had little relationship to such personal factors as age, education, length of service, amount of supervisory experience. Nelson found a correlation of  $+0.46$  between the foremen's leadership scores and personality evaluations as determined by group Rorschach's and Tat's. He concluded that neither personal factors, social factors, nor personality could explain the attitudes. Situational or individual factory plant factors were significantly related to leadership. The interaction process in social organizations was the rationale used by Nelson to study leadership types.

Valenti<sup>73</sup> designed an inventory of 102 questions which he called "The Inventory of Teaching Practices" to help evaluate the attitudes with which teachers and administrators view certain problem areas pertaining to the social role of the teacher. His study deals with the informal aspect of the principal's and

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<sup>73</sup>J. J. Valenti, "Development and Evaluation of a Leadership Attitude Scale Around the Social Role of the Teacher" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950).

teacher's attitudes in interpersonal relations with parents, administrators, the community, other employees, and students. The rationale used to approach this study proposes that teachers and principals have already formulated certain "philosophies of education" (values or attitudes) which they use as a frame of reference, consciously or unconsciously, in observing various aspects of their personal relationships and their relationships with others in the school situation. In accordance with this rationale Valenti developed an instrument that could help define, for persons in the school organization, the type of leadership that is demanded under certain situations.

The "Survey of Teaching Practices" developed by Valenti and Nelson<sup>74</sup> was designed so that all persons in a school system can complete the inventory, so that the various expectations and attitudes of how a teacher should act can be analyzed for agreement and disagreement in the organization and so that the barriers to effective interaction can be recognized. Interpersonal relations interrelated with problem situations define the teacher's role in terms of 1) Impersonal, 2) Self-sufficient, 3) Counseling, and 4) Integrative styles of leadership.

The inventory provides alternative methods of handling seventeen fundamental personnel problem areas:

- 1) Handling problems of discipline
- 2) Handling individual differences
- 3) Planning classroom work
- 4) Qualities expected in good pupils
- 5) Handling grievances and complaints
- 6) Dealing with pupil cliques
- 7) Dealing with student organizations
- 8) Motivating pupils

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<sup>74</sup>Valenti and Nelson, op. cit.

- 9) Determining pupils' attitudes and stimulating morale
- 10) Desirable qualities in teacher selection
- 11) Induction and orientation of new teachers
- 12) Rating of teachers
- 13) Teachers' adjustment
- 14) Handling parents' suggestions and complaints
- 15) Administrative rules, duties, and policies
- 16) Incentives in better teaching
- 17) Relationships with other employed personnel

The respondent's choice of action in a particular problem area and the corresponding general underlying attitude of the social or interpersonal role of the teacher can be determined. Each problem is related to two alternative methods from which the respondent chooses one to handle the problem situation. The selected method reflects one of four basic points of view along an interpersonal or leadership attitude continuum.

In the Impersonal Style the teacher sees himself as the representative of authority upon which he depends. All pupils lie below in equal consideration. The Self-sufficient Style represents the teacher as a hard working disciplinarian who derives a great deal of satisfaction from his efforts to apply his knowledge and ability to the teaching tasks. A teacher who is interested in social contact, in developing and guiding his pupils through individual incentives uses the Counseling Style under given situations. The tone of his interaction is much less formal than the other two styles. The Integrative Style of behavior focuses on the group, group standards and the teacher's participation with the group. As a "leader" the teacher considers himself a "catalytic" agent and in a group, he would consider himself a part of the group with the leader acting as the "catalytic" agent.

The leadership characteristics or "tones" of interaction are somewhat similar to those used by Likert in his Systems 1 - 4 model. They are: 1) formality

of interaction, 2) type of interaction, 3) communication (frequency), 4) length or duration of two-way contact, and 5) number of contacts. In both methods these variables are interrelated with the interaction group and the "issue" or problem. In both Valenti's and Likert's approaches the objective is to determine leadership behavior in terms of processes or styles when an interrelationship of such defined operating characteristics is present. The focus on the method is the same but the approach varies - one is sociologically oriented and the other is social science based with greater emphasis on the behavioral sciences. Thus, it appears that this is the direction towards which present day studies on educational leadership are tending. Stress on situational analysis alone is inadequate; studying the content of an issue by isolating it from the situation and the interaction groups represents only a partial and fragmentary approach; studying behaviors without considering the interacting variables shifts the focus into the field of psychology.

The recent trend toward theory development, utilization of social science models, and the application of these to case situations appears to be a move in the right direction.<sup>75</sup> Interrelationships of operating characteristics with specific reference groups are necessary ingredients in a study to determine self-perceived leadership styles expressed in terms of leadership processes.

Leadership theories focus on the person as a leader and on the group being

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<sup>75</sup>Willard R. Lane, Ronald G. Corwin and William G. Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration (New York: Macmillan Company, 1967), p. 329.

influenced by the leader. Sanders et al.<sup>76</sup> justified the inclusion of the principle, "leadership is more effective when it is group centered than centered in the status leader," in a theory of educational leadership. They presented ample evidence to show that decisions made by a group of people are more effective than decisions made by a status leader and imposed upon the group. Results of many experiments were mentioned by the authors to prove that change is brought about more effectively when individuals participate in making the decisions. This indicates that the participants in a particular program must fully understand the reasons for the change and help decide to make the change. This concept seems very appropriate in a public school system.

The group centered leadership theory, as opposed to leadership centered in the status leader, provides some answers to those who rebut the traditional concepts of a democratic leadership derived by analogy from political science. The analogy may be rejected and the science based theory of group centered leadership is advocated as certainly more apropos to a democratic society. Thus, with social science underpinnings the traditional concepts of democratic leadership style take on a new image because the focus switches from political concepts to maximum contributions from individuals of the group in decision making. Even though the status leader may have superior knowledge, his decisions are not likely to be effective until the decisions become group decisions.<sup>77</sup>

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<sup>76</sup>Sanders et al., A Theory of Educational Leadership, p. 105.

<sup>77</sup>Supra, p. 106.

Leadership is not the power of one person to decide and control but is a set of functions which no one person alone can fulfill. The individual becomes important to the group because he is unique. No one else brings the group exactly the same resources or exactly the same needs. The group destroys or ignores his uniqueness only at the cost of diminishing its own potential.<sup>78</sup>

The group centered leadership theory appears to shy away from discovering the world of reality through social science techniques which examine the interrelationships between operating characteristics and the group to determine what type, other than the group participative style of leadership, is more effective under given conditions. This is not to say that group centered leadership is ineffective or that the theory is to be rejected, but looking at the continuum of a systems model, it represents only one segment of leadership processes all of which may have some degree of effective utility to influence and motivate reference groups to goal attainment. To assume that all superintendents exercise a group centered or participative leadership style under all conditions is questionable. One approach to testing this assumption is to determine their self-perceived styles of leadership under conditions of various interrelationships between the operating characteristics of a leadership situation and the interaction groups in the school district.

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<sup>78</sup>L. P. Bradford and D. Mial, "Individual and the Group," National Elementary Principal, XLI (January, 1962), pp. 30 - 34, quoted in Robert L. Saunders et al., Theory of Educational Leadership (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966), p. 95.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES OF GOAL SETTING AND LEADERSHIP STYLE SELECTORS

#### Major Aspects of Research Design

This chapter is concerned with the analysis of self-perceived leadership processes of those superintendents who place priority on leadership style and those who place priority on goal selection and attainment as more important in their role as superintendent. As was previously stated, two approaches to this study have been utilized: (1) a research of current professional literature for opinions, surveys of results and experiences of several superintendents, who were classmates of the author, to determine the major current issues which receive top priority attention by superintendents in their role as chief school administrators; (2) an analysis of self-perceived leadership processes of those superintendents who consider goal selection as more important and those who place priority on leadership style over goal selection.

In order to secure these self-perceived identifications, a questionnaire based on Likert's Systems 1 to 4 was developed. The major issues were interwoven with Likert's operating characteristics and the reactions of the superintendents were self-scored by the respondents on a twenty point scale. The scale continuum was designed to identify a self-perceived leadership process on a particular issue and in an interaction situation with one of five interaction groups. The self-perceived process in situation corresponds to a degree



of one of four leadership processes. The processes are authoritative exploitive, authoritative benevolent, consultative, and participative group. The first three have been identified by Likert as belonging to the authoritative construct. As the process moves closer to the right of the continuum, the leadership process moves nearer towards System 4 and becomes less and less authoritative. The participative group style is traditionally identified as the democratic style of leadership.

The major aspects of the above two approaches underlying the analysis to be presented in this chapter are:

1. To determine whether superintendents, in their role as administrators, set a priority on goal selection or on leadership processes. For clarification, the statement is re-phrased in question form: Do school superintendents in the Northern portion of the County and in school districts whose average assessed valuation per pupil lies below the median for that portion of Cook County, perceive their function of superintendent as (a) one of translating into programs those educational desires and objectives which are directed and communicated to the superintendent by groups with which he interacts, or (b) one of taking the initiative and developing programs on what the superintendent thinks is needed, and obtaining the cooperation of the reference groups to implement programs to attain what is needed in terms of goals.

2. To determine quantified differences in self-perceived leadership styles between the two groups. An adaptation of a modified Likert's System 1 to 4 model to quantify the interrelationships between the operating characteristics and issues in the superintendent's interaction with five groups was used to collect this data.

3. To draw a comparison in leadership styles of both groups of superintendents on issues and in their interactions with all five interaction groups. In other words, do goal selectors and leadership style selectors vary in their leadership process on the same issue and with the same interaction group?

4. To determine differences in demographic characteristics between the leadership style selectors and goal selectors. The demographic variables which will be related to the cognitive process of selecting what is more important to the role of the respondent may have some implications as to why the two groups vary in approach.

#### Questionnaire

Section I of the questionnaire is self-explanatory and was intended to collect demographic variables which were analyzed in relationship to role selection and leadership processes on issues and with interaction groups. Each of the twenty-five superintendents in the sample was asked to indicate (1) highest degree obtained and university attended, (2) age, (3) living status, (4) length of time employed by the district, (5) number of years as superintendent in the district by which currently employed, in other districts, and total number of years as superintendent, and (6) three factors, in order of importance, that best characterize the respondent's role as an administrator. The following factors are the forced choice options presented to the respondents for selection of three self-characterizations in rank order of sequence: (1) coordinator and facilitator, (2) business executive, (3) teacher, (4) consultant and advisor, (5) salesman, (6) politician, (7) enforcer, (8) change

agent.<sup>1</sup>

Section II utilizes a forced choice selection of one out of two alternatives provided for the respondent to indicate whether (1) using style of influence or (2) developing programs based on what he thinks is needed to achieve goals or objectives is more important in the role of a superintendent. The first alternative places emphasis on utilizing leadership style in order to obtain cooperation and consensus among school board members, principals and staff; teachers, parents and community; and translating their educational desires and objectives into programs. The second choice identifies a goal oriented chief school officer who takes the initiative to develop goals and objectives, projects these goals and objectives downward through a communication process to the five selected reference groups with which he interacts, and solicits their cooperation to implement these goals and objectives.

The distinction between these two choices is a crucial one for the purpose of this study. Exceptional effort was made during the interviews to explain the distinction and its intent. Further clarification was conveyed by explaining that the difference between the two concepts is the difference between (1) accepting ideas and desires from other people, and (2) developing one's own ideas and programs to satisfy educational needs. It is a difference between (1) implementing what others think is good for the educational system, and (2) what the superintendent thinks is good for the system. On the basis of this

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<sup>1</sup>v. A. Adams and J. E. Doherty, "A New Kind of Superintendent," School Management, XIV (February, 1970), p. 34.

preliminary explanation, respondents were asked to indicate which of the two they felt is more important in their role as a chief school officer. "Do you place more emphasis on (1) leadership style or (2) goal formulation and attainment?" This distinction seems to be a critically important part of this study since it may point to what proportion of the superintendents interviewed define their roles in terms of active behavior, that is, causing action or change, rather than in terms of re-active behavior in which the superintendent is responsive to ideas and desires of others. The question was also designed to determine how this distinction shows up in actual self-perceived operating terms, namely, leadership processes. In other words, how does the superintendent who subscribes to a more active role definition compare with his colleagues in terms of objectives, priorities and essential leadership processes (to be measured on Likert's modified System 1 to 4)?

The construct of operating characteristics and corresponding operating processes, utilized in the questionnaire for all five groups, is given below:<sup>2</sup>

<u>ITEM</u>	<u>OPERATING VARIABLE</u>	<u>OPERATING PROCESS</u>
a.	Supportive Behavior	Degree of Confidence
b.	Motivational Forces	Amount of Responsibility
c.	Communication Interaction	Amount of Interaction & Communication
d.	Interaction Influence	Amount and Character of Interaction
e.	Goal Setting	Manner in which Usually Done

A major issue was interrelated with the operating variable and the combination

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<sup>2</sup>See Questionnaire in Appendix A.

of a major issue with an operating variable constituted the operating characteristic. The operating characteristic was related to the interaction groups. The self-perceived reaction to the situation in terms of the inter-related issues and variables was indicated by the respondent on a rating scale ranging from 1 to 20. This scale was provided to measure the self-perceived operating process which, in Likert's explanation, describes a behavior of an administrator and which can be best defined as leadership.<sup>3</sup>

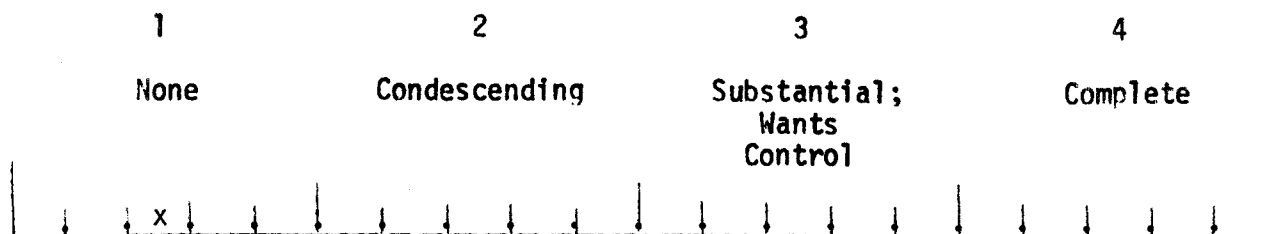
The same operating characteristics and related operating processes, as shown in items "a" through "e" above, were used for all five interaction groups. Major issues are variables, and one of the major issues was interrelated with each of the operating variables in formulating questions "a" through "e" in the questionnaire. For example, in the interaction process with the school board (the interaction group) the superintendent exhibits a supportive behavior in terms of confidence and trust (operating characteristic) on matters of school board budget decisions (major issue) and his reaction to their decisions on budgets may exhibit varying degrees of confidence and trust (operating process). This degree of confidence may be measured on a twenty point scale designed in a manner that will indicate the self-perceived leadership process corresponding to the appropriate range of points on the scale in ascending order. Each segment contains five point values and is identified by the particular process described by a leadership style. Each five point value segment is described as a System, beginning with System 1 and proceeding through System 4.

Assume from the above example that the superintendent has no confidence

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<sup>3</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization, p. 72.

and trust in the school board's decisions on budgets and selects the third point value on the scale under "Have no confidence and trust."



The superintendent answering in the above manner receives three points on the scale and falls into the authoritative exploitive leadership process on this operating characteristic in his interaction with the school board. The range of point values for each System and leadership process is as follows:

<u>SYSTEM</u>	<u>POINT RANGE</u>	<u>LEADERSHIP PROCESS</u>
1	1 - 5	Exploitive Authoritative
2	6 - 10	Exploitive Benevolent
3	11 - 15	Consultative
4	16 - 20	Participative Group

Major issues were interrelated with operating variables. Five such interrelationships were formulated for each of the five interaction groups. Therefore, twenty-five interrelationship matrices contained in the questionnaire will be quantified, combined and analyzed. The interrelationship between the operating characteristics, items "a" through "e" above, and selected major issues for each reference group are outlined as follows:

<u>INTERACTION GROUP</u>	<u>VARIABLE</u>	inter related with	<u>MAJOR ISSUE</u>
1. School Board	(a)		Spending; budget decisions.
	(b)		Developing board policies.
	(c)		Improving administrative techniques & developing competent school staff.
	(d)		Maintaining good relations.
	(e)		Encouraging curricular innovations.
2. Principals and staff	(a)		Budget decisions.
	(b)		Improving quality of teaching.
	(c)		Improving supervisory techniques.
	(d)		Policy matters.
	(e)		Curricular innovations.
3. Teachers	(a)		Budget decisions.
	(b)		Improving quality of teaching.
	(c)		Improving relationship between teachers and administrators.
	(d)		Policy matters.
	(e)		Curricular innovations.
4. Parents	(a)		Spending tax dollars wisely.
	(b)		Improving quality of teaching.
	(c)		Communication on school progress and problems.
	(d)		School discipline.
	(e)		Curricular innovation.
5. Community	(a)		Spending; bond issues.
	(b)		Improving quality of teaching.
	(c)		School problems and progress.
	(d)		Influential people in community.
	(e)		Improving school-community relations.

School Management<sup>4</sup> recently mailed a four page questionnaire to 776 superintendents, selected at random from throughout the United States. Of the total questionnaires mailed 360 were completed and returned. One of the questions asked the respondents to indicate which problems will receive their top priority

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<sup>4</sup>Adams and Doherty, "Summary: Superintendent Survey," p. 35.

attention in order of importance during 1970. Results of the survey revealed that the nation's superintendents consider the following issues to be the major problems in 1970. Problems are listed in rank order of priority.

<u>PROBLEM</u>	<u>RANK</u>
Improving the quality of teaching.	1
Encouraging curricular innovations.	2
Budgets.	3
Keeping community informed of school progress and problems.	4
Teacher negotiations.	5
Improving management techniques.	6
Developing competent administrative staff.	7
Developing written board policies.	8
Maintaining school discipline.	9
Avoiding controversy with the community.	10
Avoiding controversy with staff.	11
Dealing with student activism.	12

The list of priority issues determined for this study from a review of current professional literature, discussions with classmates in administrative positions, and queries made of school superintendents known to this writer, excludes several problems gleaned from the School Management survey. Teacher negotiations, development of a competent administrative staff, avoiding controversy with the community and staff do not appear to be at the top of the list of crucial problems faced by superintendents in suburban communities of Cook County. Problems may exist in isolated cases, but there is no indication that these problems are on the list of major issues faced by suburban Cook County school superintendents.

Two issues interwoven into the questionnaire but not contained in the School Management survey are: interaction with influential people in the community and a focus on the need for improving school-community relations. The latter may be a variation of the problem listed in the results of the above



survey, namely, avoidance of controversy with the community. Student activism, given as a major problem in the survey, is closely related to the problem of student discipline. A comparison of the issues selected for this study with issues resultant from the School Management survey indicates that use of the issues selected as operating variables in the operating characteristics introduced in the questionnaire is valid.

The major issue holding first place in order of priority for superintendents in Northern Cook County appears to be the availability of funds to maintain and improve educational facilities. The traditional vision of suburbia has almost entirely faded. Many suburban communities are in deep financial trouble. As urban expatriates continue their quest for the golden fleece in suburbia, ominous signs are cropping up. Heavy reliance on the property tax to finance essential services has boosted rates to levels often higher than those in the choicest areas of Chicago. The suburban tax payers' revolt is not fiction. Voters in such communities as Park Ridge have turned thumbs down on more school bond issues than they have passed in the last five years. Suburban county budgets have been pushed out of shape by demands for funds to increase and improve educational facilities. Poverty pockets stick out like sore thumbs in Cook County around Chicago and other suburban locales where affluence is the norm.

In this study reference will be made to "affluent communities," only for the purpose of designating the geographic location of the wealthier suburban communities whose school districts have been selected for this study. The degree of affluency ascribed to a suburban community is in no way related to the level of the assessed valuation per pupil in terms of below or above the

average assessed valuation per pupil for the entire Northern portion of Cook County. The only intent of referring to affluent communities was to focus on the disparity between the financial problems of some districts serving such communities and the above average wealth of its citizens as evidenced by the types of homes they own and the occupational positions they hold.

A good case in hand, although not among the districts selected for this study, is Evanston. Robert C. Wheeler, community development group manager for that city, says that Evanston, like many other Cook County suburban areas, will need more resources to solve its problems not only in the area of education, but in other municipal service areas as well. Since the property tax pays for almost all of them and more, the strain on local budgets is tremendous.<sup>5</sup> So, it appears that the major issue on which superintendents in Northern Cook County will focus their attention is the problem of budgets and wise use of tax revenue.

The selected operational characteristics contained in the original Likert questionnaire have been modified for this study to include the selected issues and interaction groups or persons as independent variables operating in the superintendent's leadership processes. The modified questions adapted from the Likert questionnaire and the hypotheses of this study were tested on and evaluated by jurists consisting of classmates, five superintendents known to this student, and five business executives holding responsible positions with titles of Vice President (4) and President (1). The intent of testing

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<sup>5</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, "The Golden Days Are Gone in Suburbia," Business Week, No. 2140 (September 5, 1970), pp. 35-39.

questions on the latter group was to subject the questions to an evaluation by disinterested third parties in administrative positions. The suggestions and recommendations resulting from their evaluation were incorporated in the final modification of the characteristics and processes contained in the questions to be used for this study.

The interview technique was used to administer the questionnaire. Approximately one hour was devoted by each of the twenty-five superintendents to the interview and questionnaire. Each question was arranged as a continuum with a range from exploitive authoritative through group participative. Four leadership styles identified by the corresponding operating processes, as adapted from Likert's operational characteristics, have been placed on a rating scale. The respondent indicated the degree of his cognitive perception of the leadership style in his interaction with a specific group, and on a stated issue, on a 20 point scale. Each segment on the leadership variable contains a dimension of five possible selections. Respondents were instructed to indicate on the scale, by check mark for each variable, how they perceive themselves in that particular situation. Each item was tested as a continuous variable from the extreme at one end to that at the other. Respondents were asked first to select the operational process and, secondly, to indicate the degree of their self-perceived reaction to that process.

Because of the many variables inherent in the questionnaire, the rating response items were carefully watched for any potential response bias. This cannot be ascertained solely through the instrumentality of the questionnaire given to a subject on whom data is being collected, particularly when selection is made on a continuum.

By means of the interview, it is possible to secure many data that cannot be obtained through the less personal procedure of distributing a reply blank. People generally do not care to put confidential information in writing; they may want to see who is getting the information and receive guarantees as to how it will be used; they need the stimulation of personal contacts in order to be "drawn out"...Furthermore, the interview enables the researcher to follow up leads and take advantage of small clues; in complex material, where the development is likely to proceed in any direction, no prepared instrument can perform the task. Again, the interview permits the interviewer to gain an impression of the person who is giving the facts, to form some judgment of the truth in the facts, to "read between the lines" things that are not said.<sup>6</sup>

The questionnaire was revised so that every other item in each section corresponding to the interaction group was reversed on the continuum. The "exploitive authoritative" operational process was placed on the right of the continuum for about half of the questions, and "group participative" was placed on the right for the other half. The reason for this was to minimize the error due to response set, namely, the tendency displayed by some persons -- when all of the items have the same relative position from left to right -- to check every item on the page at about the same point. Questions relating to the five operating characteristics were mixed within each section for the same reason. However, questions from one section were not mixed with questions from other sections.

The interchange of items and reversal of operational processes on the Likert scale in each of the five parts of the questionnaire were arranged in the following questionnaire format:

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<sup>6</sup>Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr and Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research (New York: Appeltion-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), p. 378.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
a - a	a - a (R)	a - c	a - d (R)	a - e
b - c	b - b	b - e (R)	b - a	b - b (R)
c - b (R)	c - c (R)	c - d	c - e (R)	c - a
d - e	d - d	d - a (R)	d - b	d - c (R)
e - d (R)	e - e (R)	e - b	e - c (R)	e - d

The number above each column represents the interaction group with which the superintendent perceives his leadership style on a specific issue. Letters to the left of each column represent the original, sequential order of the items or operational variables around which questions were developed. The letters to the right of the column show how the questions were re-positioned on the scales contained in the questionnaire completed by superintendents at the time of interview. The letter "R", in parenthesis, indicates that the operational processes for that question were reversed on the scale. For example, in group one or part one (1) of the questionnaire, addressed to "School Board Members," item (c), "communication interaction," which is the third operating characteristic in the original listing, has been repositioned as the second item in the questionnaire under item (b). In addition to repositioning this item, its operating processes were reversed on the scale so that the degree or intensity of the process perceived by the superintendent proceeds in descending order rather than ascending order.

#### Sample

This study was confined to superintendents of districts located in the Northern Cook County suburbs of Chicago. The selection of superintendents was based on an analysis of the assessed valuations per pupil for all school districts in the Northern portion of Cook County. Twenty-five (25) school superintendents from school districts below the median assessed valuation per

pupil for that portion of Cook County were selected for this study. All districts below the median figure are of the K-8 grade designation.

### Definition of Terms

#### Leadership

Leadership is defined as an interpersonal interaction influence, requiring supportive behavior on the part of both the follower and the formal leader, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals. This definition is a synthesis of elements contained in the definition given by Tannenbaum and in Likert's operational characteristics which, combined with processes, determine leadership style.<sup>7</sup>

#### Leadership Style

Leadership style is an operational process of the leader on a given issue or in a given situation, and in his interaction with an individual or group, to attain a specified goal or goals. The interaction may result in a process which is exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, or participative group. The first three are degrees of an autocratic style and the last is a democratic style.

#### Goals

"Goals are a functional expression of some larger ideals, which are the

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<sup>7</sup>Tannenbaum et al., op. cit., p. 24 and Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, pp. 196 - 211.

social expectations for the school."<sup>8</sup> Goals can be further defined as statements of objectives that are specific statements of behavioral outcomes for some educational activity. Thus, if goal A is to improve instruction in reading, there may be two or more objectives relating to that goal. The first might be that successful participants will be able to identify reading difficulties using diagnostic tests. A second objective might be that participants will be able to apply appropriate instructional procedures for diagnosed reading difficulties. Appropriate activities for reaching the objective of diagnosing reading difficulties would be developed, programmed and implemented. These objectives would support the attainment of Goal A and Goal A would serve to support a broad goal, namely, to improve the quality of learning or teaching. When a broad goal is in view, then any number of activities and programs could be selected and developed toward attaining the broad and more specific goals.<sup>9</sup>

For the purpose of this study, goals will be related to the superintendent's decisions to develop programs on what he thinks is needed to achieve educational objectives which would provide the best possible education of students in the community. Goals can be tangible and intangible.

If there is a high degree of goal intangibility, goal attainment can still be maximized by keeping tangible goals directed toward the

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<sup>8</sup>Ben M. Harris & Wailand Bessent, In-Service Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969), p. 29.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., pp. 30 - 43.

central intangible goals, but it is reduced by displacing tangible goals to peripheral goals of system maintenance.<sup>10</sup>

Goals are viewed as programs which can provide adequate guidance for group action, intended for fulfilling educational needs and not designed to maintain the organization or educational system primarily as an end in itself.

#### Exploitive Authoritative

The exploitive authoritative style is an autocratic style of leadership which is characterized by a reactionary effort to maintain or change the existing order by imposing practices approved by the leader. Its main features are imposition and domination and its only interest is in the attainment of some pre-determined goal. This style elicits obedience to directives, uses fear as a motivating practice, exhibits no confidence in interaction groups, and operates in a downward communication mode most of the time.

#### Benevolent Authoritative

This type of leadership is an autocratic style of leadership which is paternalistic in scope. Its policy is to direct and control participation in the plan of supervisors. Pre-determined plans are imposed and only a minimum of suggestions and modifications are received. Very little consideration is given to individual needs or interests.

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<sup>10</sup>W. Keith Warner and A. Eugene Havens, "Goal Displacement and the Intangibility of Organizational Goals," Administrative Science Quarterly, XII (March, 1968), p. 539.



### Consultative

This style is a benevolent autocracy leaning toward participative group action. It hopes for voluntary participation in carrying out plans of superintendents. Predetermined plans are imposed but suggestions and modifications within them are given a hearing. Degrees of consideration are given to individuals, but they differ with situations, or, according to Likert, they differ depending on the issue and person(s).<sup>11</sup>

### Participative Group

This style of leadership uses the principle of supportive relationships, group methods of supervision, high performance goals and well-organized plan of operation. Its main features are a cooperative group formulation or approval of policy and program, and consideration of individual needs and interests in efforts to attain specific goals or objectives.

### Supportive Behavior

This term refers to the exhibited or self-perceived behavior of superintendents towards others, in their interaction relationship with others. It is an independent variable which measures the extent to which superintendents have trust and confidence in subordinates or persons and groups with whom they interact. When this behavior is changed, in terms of corresponding operating processes, it could cause other operating variables to change, also in terms of their operating processes.

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<sup>11</sup>William H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner, op. cit., pp. 66 - 67.

### Motivational Forces

These are the kinds of influence that a leader exerts on his organization and can be measured by degrees of behavior in support of the organization's goals. These forces can either reinforce each other in support of goals, or can create conflicts which reduce substantially the support of organizational goals.

### Communication Process

The amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving the organization's objectives determines the nature of the communication process. The information flow can be downward, upward and with peers. The amount of interaction and communication is related to the type of leadership style employed by the superintendent in his interaction with specific groups.

### Interaction Influence

This is an interaction facilitation or behavior which serves the function of creating or maintaining a network of interpersonal relationships among group members.

### Goal Setting or Goal Emphasis

The manner in which the superintendent sets programs and provides effective work methods facilities, and technology for the accomplishment of stated goals or objectives describes goal setting behavior.

### Data Analysis

The responses of the superintendents to the items in the questionnaire were categorized, using the modified Likert scale. Tally work sheets were used to record directly the responses from the respondents' questionnaires. Using

the numeric scale, from one to twenty, the mean of each operating process as related to the operating characteristic for all five interaction groups was calculated and converted to a score. Specific item scales were reversed to obtain uniform scoring. Graphic profile sheets were prepared to facilitate scoring and plotting of profiles for both groups: the goal selectors and the leadership style selectors. Final scores and profiles have the "exploitive authoritative" process at the left and the "participative group" on the right.

Hypothesis I was tested by comparing the percent of responses to questions 1 and 2 in Section II-B of the questionnaire. Hypotheses II through VI were tested by calculating the mean of numeric values of responses on each scale. Results were split into two groups, namely, those superintendents who chose leadership style and that group which chose goal selection as more important in their role as superintendent.

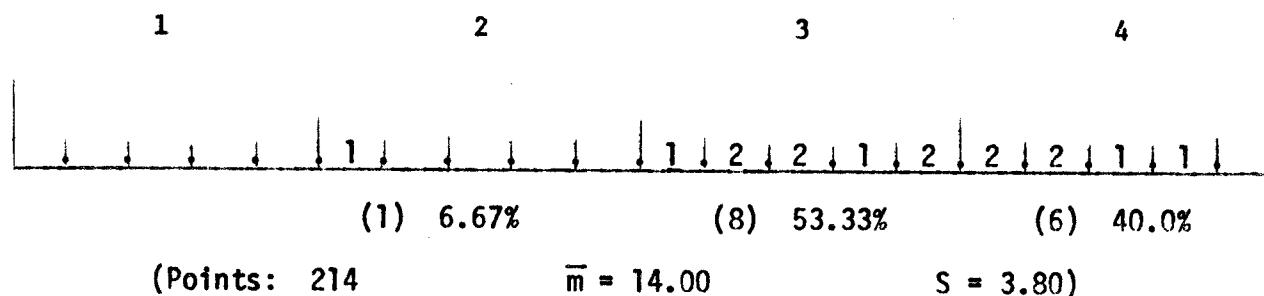
The questionnaire-interview analysis was divided into three parts: (1) an analysis of the combined responses of leadership style selectors and an interpretation of the calculated means and scores for each scale, all five scales for each reference group and all twenty-five scales for the five reference groups; and (2) the same analysis, as above, for the goal selectors, and (3) a combined analysis of leadership style selectors and goal selectors.

Means ( $\bar{m}$ ) of responses on each scale were converted to scores along a System 1 to System 4 continuum by assuming that System 1 covers the range from 1.00 to 1.99, System 2 covers 2.00 to 2.99, System 3 covers 3.0 to 3.99, and System 4 covers 4.00 to 4.99. Each system corresponds to the self-perceived leadership process ranging from exploitive authoritative to participative group. The formula for converting the means to scores along the continuum is:

$$\text{Score} = (\text{observed } \bar{m}) \frac{4}{20} + 1.00$$

Total points, the means of the points assigned to the responses, and the scores of the converted means for each scale, combined scales by each interaction group, and combined scales for all interaction groups were calculated for each respondent group and for the two-groups combined. A comparative analysis of these statistics was made and an interpretation of the data supported by an analysis of the information collected from the interviews was used to test the hypotheses.

An example of how the scales will be presented and how to interpret the data is given below:



1. The number above each five point segment on the scale represents the type of leadership process as perceived by the superintendents in their reaction to the operating characteristic, which is a combination of the specific operating variable and issue, in their interaction with the reference group(s).

2. The number on the scale represents the frequency of superintendents selecting the particular point value response on the scale. Point values range from 1 to 20, from left to right on the continuum.

3. The number in parenthesis represents the total number of superintendents selecting responses within the range of a given leadership process - System 1, 2, 3 or 4.

4. The number next to the parenthesis is the number of superintendents selecting responses within the dimensions of leadership and converted to a percentage.

5. Points are obtained by adding the point values by using a range of 1 to 20 for each item. Each point value is multiplied by the frequency within that point value and all products are added to obtain total points on the scale.

6. After the points on each item have been obtained, the mean (average) score ( $\bar{m}$ ) is computed. Similarly the mean score on selected and all items for each group and combined groups of respondents will be computed for their total scores. Profiles for each group and combined groups will be drawn by plotting the average score of all respondents for each item.

7. "S" represents the means ( $\bar{m}$ ) converted to scores. The conversion formula was explained on page 118 of this chapter.

8. To interpret the above graphic representation, the operating characteristic, the interaction group, and the description of leadership processes must be given. In the above example, the operating characteristic is the "extent to which my motives conflict with or reinforce one another in written policies;" the interaction group is the school board; the leadership processes, defined by leadership styles, proceed from System 1 to System 4: (1) marked conflict reducing support of policies, (2) conflict often exists but occasionally will reinforce my motives, (3) some conflict, but often will reinforce my motives, and (4) motives generally enforced in substantial and cumulative manner to support policies wholeheartedly. The data represent responses of leadership style selectors.

The above scale reads as follows: only one leadership style selector

(Group A) or 6.67 percent of the responses from that group selected the Benevolent Authoritative leadership process. Eight or 53.33 percent selected responses within the range of Consultative and six or 40.0 percent selected responses in the Participative Group style. Total points equalled 214; the mean score (average) is 14.00 and the converted mean(s) is 3.80. The self-perceived leadership style selectors operate in the System 3 dimension, namely the Consultative style. The mean score of all the responses measures the style as being very close to Participative Group. In their interaction with School Board Members on policy matters, superintendents as a group would appear to exercise a benevolent autocratic style of leadership, leaning toward participative group action. They propose, recommend, expect a hearing, and hope for the Board's voluntary acceptance of their policy recommendations and modifications.

### Hypothesis I

Superintendents, in their administrative roles, are more concerned with goal setting than with leadership processes.

The first hypothesis deals with determining whether superintendents, in general, place a greater priority on setting goals or exercising leadership styles in their administrative role as chief officer. Disciplinary problems with students at the elementary and junior high school levels; teacher strikes for purposes of demanding a better salary and a stronger voice in shaping school policy; pressures from parents, calling for more say in hiring and firing school staffs, in developing curriculums, in determining student services;<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Luvern, L. Cunningham and Raphael O. Nystrand, "The Search for Strength in Local School Leadership," The American School Board Journal, CLV (April, 1968), p. 8.

the profession's quest for responsibility and accountability;<sup>13</sup> the increasingly deep, pervading strength in community control of the schools<sup>14</sup> -- and many other developments that have erupted within the past few years, provide the backdrop of tough problems requiring search for leadership in local school affairs. The issues on which superintendents focus their attention in their role as chief school officers are surrounded by such developments. The interrelationships between issues and recent developments influence the superintendent's historical utilization of leadership processes.

The setting prompts some to call for an "educational superman," and may cause others to enumerate divine qualities as prerequisites for the superintendency. Pairing these demands with the obvious need to find candidates from the real world, and not the exclusively theoretical practitioners of leadership who operate by analogies from political science, it appears that the successful school superintendent, today and in the future, must be:

1. Of impeachable integrity and good will;
2. A general, broad-gauged administrator instead of a specialist;
3. Ready to view his role as that of community rather than school leader;
4. Dedicated to improving as well as maintaining the school system.<sup>15</sup>

The qualities expected of superintendents in each of the foregoing categories are these:

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<sup>13</sup>D. D. Darland, "The Profession's Quest for Responsibility and Accountability," Phi Delta Kappan, LII (September, 1970), pp. 41-44.

<sup>14</sup>Stanton Leggett, "Thirteen Imperatives for Boards in the Seventies," The American School Board Journal, CLVIII (October, 1970), p. 19.

<sup>15</sup>Cunningham and Nystrand, "The Search for Strength in Local School Leadership," p. 8.

1. He must inspire trust; he must possess the ability to present an unimpeachable image, to inspire local commitment to education and to guarantee the openness and above-board nature of school affairs. A superintendent possessing these leadership qualities should enhance the ability of the local public school system to tolerate, even benefit from, controversies surrounding local school activities. The superintendent known for these qualities may not always see things the way his interaction groups see them, but the highest praise that local citizens can afford him is that he is a fair man.

2. He must possess a variety of talents. The measure of his success will be his ability to work with others in defining purposes and goals and organizing programs to attain them. He should possess the ability to recognize and defer to the special expertise of his principals, staff members and teachers, while consistently serving the interests of the total school community.

3. He must lead the total community. He must be responsive to ideas put forth by housewives and merchants as he is to the suggestions of corporation executives and school principals; but, he must also take the initiative to develop ideas and programs to meet the educational needs of his school districts. As an administrator, he has the responsibility to involve citizens in determining goals and to explain the nature and the basis for their judgments to the interested public.

4. The fourth quality is to be able to innovate as well as maintain. The successful superintendent must find a middle road. But, he must recognize changing needs within the school system and not allow it to atrophy or die from internal malfunction. One of the roles of a superintendent can be defined as



that of change agent or innovator.<sup>16</sup>

Leadership styles can, therefore, maintain and sustain systems. Goals will continue to sustain the maintenance of systems through programs which are developed to meet the changing educational needs of the community. There is a difference between maintaining and sustaining. A system can be maintained in its unchanging form and a leadership style is applicable to this type of setting. Sustaining a system refers to feeding that system with new programs in order to meet the challenge of changing needs. The first hypothesis implies that the majority of superintendents embrace the concept of sustaining rather than maintaining the system. In practice this concept places priority on goal setting and goal attainment. To sustain the school system, the superintendent must possess good planning ability.

Conflicting pressures upon school leaders is convincing evidence of the need for planning capability. Planning in education is made difficult by the ambiguities that often surround school purposes and by the lack of scientific certainty about any particular educational approach. The task of the educational planner is, therefore, at least threefold: (1) responsibility for leadership in defining educational purposes (or goals); (2) development of approaches to accomplish these purposes; (3) continuous monitoring of the processes of purpose-defining, approach developing and program implementing, with the acknowledgement that the results in one area may dictate the redefinition of purpose or approach in another.<sup>17</sup>

The educational leader who places priority on leadership style exerts his efforts to produce complete community consensus regarding the school program. The goal oriented educational leader exerts his efforts in open, purposeful

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<sup>16</sup>Supra, pp. 8 - 11.

<sup>17</sup>Cunningham and Nystrand, "The Search for Strength in Local School Leadership," p. 9.

planning which will lead to stronger educational programs, but such efforts clearly will not produce complete community consensus at all times.

To make an initial identification of superintendents who lean toward the leadership style role and those who tend toward a more forceful definition of the superintendency role, each interview with the twenty-five superintendents queried for this study was preceded by a discussion and explanation of the distinction between the two types of administrative orientations. Section II-B of the questionnaire contains the two alternatives from which the interviewee selected his priority choice. Results of the responses to each of the two alternatives are given below.

Question: Which of the following alternatives do you consider more important in your role as Superintendent?

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>RESPONSES</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
A	Using style of influence	15	60%
B	Goal setting and attainment	<u>10</u>	<u>40%</u>
	TOTAL	25	100%

The more responsive definition, A, was chosen by fifteen, or sixty percent of the superintendents; the more active definition, B, was selected by ten, or forty percent of the superintendents. Thus, a significant minority of the respondents did differ with the majority, in a very basic sense, over the question of self-perceived role definitions.

Four respondents of the self-perceived goal oriented group took exception to the distinction between the two self-perceived roles. A superintendent of a medium size North Shore school district with a 4,600 pupil population, eight attendance centers, and 221 teachers, stated that the practice of leadership and

setting of goals are overlapping concepts of leadership style. Both ingredients must be present, but he did affirm that emphasis must be placed on leadership style.

Another superintendent who took issue with the distinction between the two roles administers a large district in the far Northwest portion of Cook County containing a pupil population of nearly 10,000 in seventeen attendance centers, and employing 435 teachers. He stated:

I tend to reject this absolute dichotomy. It seems to me that anyone worth his salt does both. Styles of influence, tactics, etc., are actually outgrowths of one's goals and objectives towards which he strives. Goals must be established and in the process of attaining them, the good administrator shifts from one leadership style to another, depending on the issue, the surrounding circumstances, and the people with whom he deals.

The third respondent who did not accept the separation of the two activities is superintendent of a district also located in a far Northwest suburb of Cook County. His school district contains a pupil population of nearly 11,000, enrolled in fifteen attendance centers, K-8 designation, and employs 527 teachers. He stated that it is impossible to separate leadership style and goal setting because every administrative activity involves, in some way, a combination of goals and styles.

The fourth superintendent, also making a point of the inseparability of the two concepts, stated that goal setting or goal orientation must also include a major emphasis on leadership style. He objected to the distinction between the two approaches to the study. He does not in any way equate the process of maintaining a status quo of the organization with leadership. Administering solely for the purpose of maintaining the system is <sup>not</sup> identified with leadership. Leadership to this respondent, who is also a superintendent of a medium size

North Shore district with a school population of approximately 5,200 pupils, nine attendance centers, and 255 teachers, means innovation, setting goals, and working towards the attainment of goals by soliciting the cooperation of all those groups and persons who are involved in the school district. In defining his leadership style, he emphasized three self-characterizations of his role as superintendent, namely, (1) coordinator-facilitator, (2) consultant and advisor, and (3) change agent.

All of the above four respondents, however, accepted the premise and underlying assumption to leadership that a superintendent, in exercising a leadership process, may place more emphasis on goal setting than on a leadership style, and that, in fact, the choice was a forced response in favor of goal setting as being more important than practicing a leadership style in their role of superintendent. The remaining six respondents from the goal oriented group, Group B, accepted the distinction between alternatives without question.

Only one superintendent from Group A (leadership style), in charge of a small North Shore school district with a pupil population of less than 1,000, K-8 designation, two attendance centers and employing less than thirty teachers, selected leadership style over goal setting because he felt that the school board should be responsible for setting goals. His comment on the distinction between the two roles was as follows:

I place my emphasis on leadership processes over and above goal setting. To be a good leader, I must be a good follower. What good is it, if one has many sophisticated goals and objectives, but cannot lead. I administer the school district and implement the goals established by the Board, which has been empowered by statute as an arm of legislature to establish policies. If it is the responsibility of the Board to set policies which determine the goals, then my role as chief school officer is to be concerned more with leadership style through which I invoke full participation and involvement of all concerned to implement these goals and policies.

Other comments by leadership style selectors on their rationale for placing priority on leadership style over goal setting are as follows:

1. There is a basic philosophy which underlies the practice of administrative leadership, particularly in the field of education where the grid of interaction is formulated by many groups projecting their ideas toward goal attainment.

Administrative leadership is a different kind of ballgame. It is a personalized style that is characterized by a diffusiveness which permeates throughout the entire system and organization. Its effect is modified by the personalities inherent in the individuals and groups which hold various positions in the system. Differing reactions to the influence exerted by the leader must be blended together into a harmonious effort which will minimize the dysfunctional elements tending to disrupt unified goal attainment.

The chief school executive must motivate towards cooperation. Creativity cannot be squelched; otherwise, professionalism in education may be reduced to systematic task performance, characterized by routinized work functions performed in a closure which would prevent entry of new ideas, innovations and progress in educating children.

2. Leadership style is more important because the leader motivates the groups, such as, board members, principals, teachers, parents, community agencies and tax payers, to arrive at a consensus on ideas and programs to meet the needs of the children in the community. As a leader, I must assess these ideas, refine them, and with professional knowledge, I must integrate them into programs which can be accepted. Forcing programs into a school district without obtaining a consensus can make life miserable for any superintendent.

3. Get along with everyone, smile and keep the board and parents happy, and you have good leadership and a pleasant existence. Why push programs -- the Board is the policy making board, the parents have their ideas on their children's existence in school -- why "rock the boat?"

Although there were as many different expressions on what constitutes leadership style as there were respondents in Group A, all but one superintendent accepted the definition of leadership style and did not question either the definition or the distinction between the two alternatives.

The only Group A respondent who took issue with the distinction is superintendent of a large school district in the Northwest portion of Cook County, with a pupil population exceeding 10,000, nineteen attendance centers,

and over 400 teachers. His rationale is expressed in the following comments:

Generally, I place emphasis on leadership process, but it depends on the issue and the situation whether I place more priority on goals or leadership style. If by goal setting you mean that I want something done without going through all the red tape of getting it done, then I would say that, with teachers, I take that approach through my administrators. At that point, I am not concerned with leadership style either with my administrators or teachers.

The respondent also stated that emphasis on leadership style may be feasible in one school and its immediate community and a focus on goal setting would be more appropriate in another school setting. It appears that this respondent prefers to cut into slices all the various ramifications of the entire school district organization and to select the appropriate alternative, dependent on the type of sub-community, the organization and personnel in a specific school, the real issues which constitute the specific problems related to a particular school, and many other variables, all of which combine into a pattern differentiating one situation from another. The respondent indicated that his district is fragmented by social levels, family income averages for the various locales in which the district schools are situated, educational attainments of the citizens of the community and parental interest in school activities. Negative attitudes were projected by this respondent towards parents, teachers and community.

Responses to the question which was intended to make an initial identification of leadership style selectors and goal selectors are summarized in the following table.

Table 1  
COMBINED SUMMARY TABLE FOR HYPOTHESIS I

GROUP	VOLUNTARY ACCEPTANCE			FORCED ACCEPTANCE			TOTAL
A	(14)	93.33%		(1)	6.67%		(15) 100%
B	( 6)	60 %		(4)	40 %		(10) 100%
Total	(20)	80 %		(5)	20 %		25

#### Summary and Analysis

Of Group A, only one or 6.67 percent of the respondents felt he was forced to elicit a response choosing leadership style over goal selection as more important in his role as superintendent. Four, or 40 percent of the respondents in Group B, took exception to the distinction between the two roles because they felt that leadership process and goal selection are two functions of leadership and cannot be separated. However, they made a forced choice selection indicating that the function of goal setting is more important than leadership style.

Five or 20 percent of the total respondents from the two groups combined, elicited a forced choice. Fourteen or 93.33 percent of the Group A respondents and six or 40 percent of the Group B respondents chose their selection voluntarily and without question. Twenty respondents or 80 percent of the total in the two groups combined accepted their respective priority choice without questioning separability or inseparability of the concepts by definition.

There appears to be agreement among superintendents that leadership processes and goal setting are important elements of a superintendent's role as an administrator. Some superintendents questioned the validity of a real

distinction between leadership style and goal setting as two separate administrative functions. The leadership group (Group A) appears to have no difficulty in accepting their self-perceived leadership style as more important than goal setting. Group B, the goal oriented group, feels that goal setting is more important than leadership style, although forty percent of this group took issue with the distinction.

A comparison of the Group A and Group B responses may indicate that Group B consists of a more action-oriented cadre of superintendents than might be found in Group A. Groups A and B agree on both definitions, but Group B disagrees more than Group A on the separation of the two elements into two separate administrative roles.

The leadership style selectors appeared to be more concerned with obtaining consensus from their interaction groups. Goal selectors placed more emphasis on developing programs to meet educational needs of the community. Less than one-half of the leadership style selectors took the position that goals are established for them through school board policies and decisions. None of the respondents of the goal selector group indicated that goals are pre-set or established by their reference groups before programs are developed for implementation.

Throughout the interviews the leadership style selectors emphasized the broad concept of a democratic style of leadership, whereas all goal selectors talked in terms of evoking and soliciting group participation. Leadership style selectors, as a group, indicated that ideas, suggestions, and recommendations on school programs require consensus and involvement of reference groups before decisions are made. The goal selectors placed more emphasis on decision making



as the crux of the administrator's role. One leadership style selector stated:  
"The core of my administrative role is not decision making."

The above statement made by a leadership style selector, with reference to his decision-making role, is not in line with the conclusions of some studies which dealt with the decision-making process of administrators and executives, not only in the field of education, but also in other fields where the administrative function is exercised. The responsibility for decision-making is allocated in such a way that decisions will rest with individuals who are in authority by virtue of their position and the possession of a particular knowledge or skill. A superintendent, to be an effective leader, must exercise his authority on the strength of his knowledge of education and skill in educational administration. Hence, he must make decisions to fulfill the authority and responsibility of his administrative role.

To set goals and develop plans and programs for the attainment of defined goals, the superintendent must establish priorities; to establish priorities, he must decide on what is more important and what is less important. This careful consideration of alternatives involves a decision-making process in which the superintendent is personally involved. Sixty percent of the respondents chose leadership style as more important in their role as superintendent, with the understanding that leadership style connotes the acceptance of ideas and desires from other people, rather than developing one's own ideas on educational needs. Forty percent of the total number of respondents chose goal selection as more important; but, of the goal selectors, forty percent felt that they were forced to make this choice. The responses appear to indicate that the majority of superintendents are more concerned with leadership style rather than with their own initiative to decide on what goals should be set and

implemented, based on what they think is good for the school system.

### Hypotheses II, III, IV, V, and VI

An organization, as a human social system, can be described in terms of a fundamental dimension, namely, where it falls on Likert's System 1 to System 4 continuum. A profile of organizational characteristics is designed to make such a description, using the following major categories:

1. Supportive behavior
2. Motivational forces
3. Communication processes
4. Interaction-influence processes
5. Goal setting or ordering.

Operational characteristics are a combination of the above characteristics and a selected problem or issue. The self-perceived reaction to the issue by superintendents in their interaction with specific reference groups was measured on a modified Likert scale. The reactions were further identified by descriptions of the reactions, in terms of leadership processes, in accordance with the Likert findings. Leadership processes are identified by the descriptive behaviors which are scaled along a continuum segmented into System 1 to System 4 dimensions of leadership styles. The styles are defined as exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative and participative group.

As was mentioned earlier in this study, many variables have been interwoven into quantified form in order to determine how Group A and Group B superintendents interact with their reference groups on selected issues within the framework of the organizational characteristics. The interrelationship between the hypotheses is such that the treatment of data for one hypothesis at a time is not practically feasible. Deductions and conclusions for each hypothesis

will evolve from a gradual and progressive development of all quantified data which compare one group with another.

The approach to the procedural analysis for testing the stated hypotheses is unique in that the first step will be to analyze all the responses on the questionnaire and supportive data from the interviews, and then to make conclusions from a further comparative analysis of the means, scores and profiles of all quantified variables in all interactions and relationships of the variables. Therefore, each item in the questionnaire will be analyzed first; all items for each interaction group will be combined for further analysis; and finally all items for all interaction groups will be combined for final analysis and comparison.

The following is a presentation and analysis of the questionnaire items for the purpose of testing hypotheses II, III, IV, V and VI.

#### Hypothesis II

Superintendents selecting leadership style over goal setting possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of their leadership process, within a dimension that ranges from benevolent authoritative to consultative, in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

#### Hypothesis III

Superintendents selecting goal-setting over leadership style possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of a participative leadership process in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

#### Hypothesis IV

Both groups of superintendents, those placing priority on leadership style and those placing priority on goal setting, possess a cognitive perception of their leadership process, which rarely operates in the exploitive authoritative leadership dimensions in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

## Hypothesis V

Superintendents' cognitive perception of leadership style varies on each relevant dimension of leadership processes, ranging from exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, to participative, depending on their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

## Hypothesis VI

Both groups, the goal selectors and the leadership style selectors, do not perceptually adhere to the traditional theory of a "democratic" or participative leadership process at all times.

In presenting the analysis of responses, Leadership Style Selectors will be designated as Group A and Goal Selectors as Group B. The highest possible points for Group A are 300; for Group B, 200; and for the combined groups, 500.

Superintendents' individual responses will be presented to show where their self-perceived leadership processes fell on the continuum of the scale. For hypotheses II, III, IV, and VI data were combined to obtain the means and means converted to scores in order to obtain a comparison of self-perceived leadership processes between the Group A and Group B superintendents, as groups, and to determine how both groups combined perceive their leadership style. The analysis of data for hypothesis V focuses on the individual responses of superintendents to determine how their self-perceived leadership styles varied on each relevant dimension of leadership processes.

## Interaction Group I - School Board Members

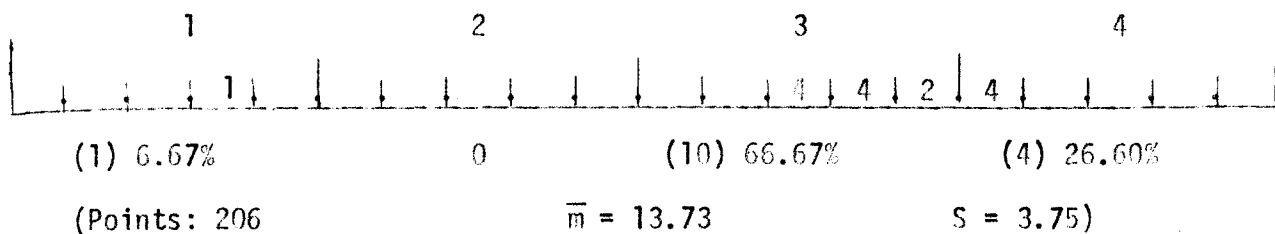
Item (a)

Category: Supportive behavior.

Operating Characteristics: Extent to which superintendents have confidence and trust in decisions of school board members on budgets.

- Operating Processes:
- (1) Have no confidence and trust
  - (2) Have condescending confidence and trust
  - (3) Substantial but not complete
  - (4) Complete confidence and trust.

Group "A" Responses



Only one superintendent in Group A indicated no confidence in budget decisions of his school board. He was very firm in his response by stating that "I run the district and if they are unhappy with my decisions on how money should be spent and how I run the district -- then they can replace me." Those superintendents who selected point values in the consultative dimension of the continuum took the position that, in their administrative role, the final decision on budgets is the prerogative of the school board. They did not indicate complete confidence and trust in the board's ability to allocate financial resources to educational programs.

Superintendents who chose point values in the participative group dimension of the continuum expressed a genuine and sincere effort towards arriving at joint decisions on fiscal and budgetary matters. One superintendent selected a response in this dimension stated:

"They're my boss; so, I have to have confidence and trust in decisions on budgets."

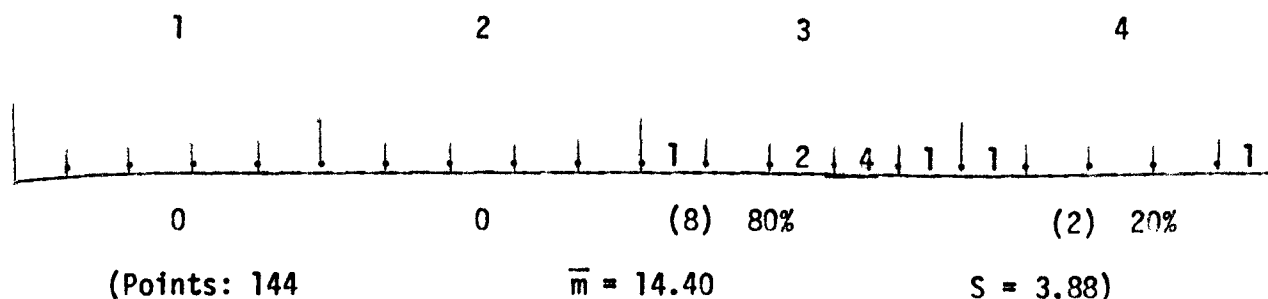
However, this same respondent indicated that he has very little or no confidence in teachers, parents and community on budgets and other issues.

All respondents in Group A mentioned that the problem underlying the issue of budgets is the tremendous growth in school enrollment which necessitates planning to provide additional school facilities. The major problem is to raise the revenue and find the sources of revenue with which these facilities could be financed. The accepted "philosophy" of all but one superintendent "is to live within the means which are at our disposal, and we budget accordingly."

One superintendent selecting a response in the consultative dimension of the continuum asserted that he understands what the needs are, but many times the board members take the position that tax revenue and other sources of revenue limit the extent to which planning for new facilities can be developed. In general, all superintendents agreed that the board should be interested in the design and implementation of educational programs, once funding has been obtained, but board members should not be involved in the actual details of the programs.

Only one superintendent (in dimension 3), in a North suburban community, stated that teacher salaries are the main underlying problem on the issue of budgets. He stated that board members feel that teachers' salaries are accelerating too rapidly in relationship to the district's ability to procure adequate funds to cover these increases. He attributed rapidly rising teachers' salaries as the prime reason for the deficit budget under which his school district operates. "If this keeps up," he stated, "board members feel we will run into trouble because revenue is insufficient to keep teachers happy and to be competitive with bordering North Shore school district salary schedules."

## Group "B" Responses

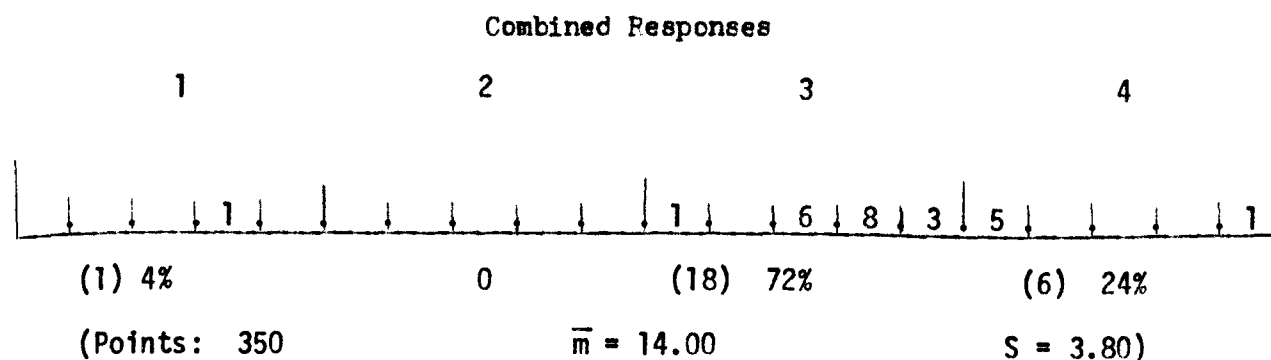


All superintendents selecting point values on the consultative dimension indicated that "administration makes recommendations and decisions on budget matters, but the board reviews the recommendations and makes the final decision." Five of the eight administrators stated that their budget recommendations are always supported by planned programs which are presented with budgets.

Of the two superintendents who selected point values in the participative group dimension, one stated that he delegates all financial and budgetary matters to his business manager, although he reviews the final budget with him and submits the figures to the board for final approval. This respondent, who is a superintendent in a very affluent school district of a far Northwest community stated that his primary concentration is on public relations and good communications with the school board and community.

The superintendent who selected the highest point value on the twenty point scale stated that there was no conflict between himself and the board on goals and funds allocated to achieve these goals. He exhibited mutual trust and confidence. This does not mean that he is able to obtain funds for all planned programs, but he indicated that he and the board have a complete understanding on priorities to which available funds can be allocated. For example,

the respondent would like to implement resource centers, but funds are currently unavailable.



Both groups of respondents appear to agree that preliminary decisions and recommendations on budgets are the responsibility of the superintendent. Both groups exhibit substantial confidence and trust in the board's final decision on budgets, with the one noted exception. Nearly one fourth of the superintendents indicated complete confidence and trust.

The leadership style selectors, as a group, exhibit slightly less confidence and trust than the goal selectors, but a larger percentage of this group falls on the participative group dimension of the scale.

Eighty percent of the goal selectors, as compared to the 66.67 percent of the leadership style selectors, use the consultative leadership process in their interaction with the school board on the issue of budgets.

The operational characteristic measured on the above scale refers to the principle of supportive relationships. This principle, which provides an invaluable guide in any attempt to apply the newer theory of management in a specific organization structure, characterized by functionalization, can be briefly stated:



The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and relationships with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his personal worth and importance.<sup>18</sup>

The analysis of the first item in the questionnaire indicates that superintendents perceive their leadership style as more consultative than participative, although the style is close to the participative group style. It is apparent that, on matters of budgets, superintendents perceive their board member as supportive, friendly and helpful, rather than hostile. Board members are also perceived as just, fair, and genuinely interested in the wellbeing of other interaction groups. But, the respondents appear to have some reservation about the board members' ability to recognize priorities to which funds are to be allocated. It appears that this is the area of budgets over which superintendents wish to keep control and the reason why superintendents did not perceive their leadership style as being completely participative or "democratic."

Item (b)

Category: Motivational forces.

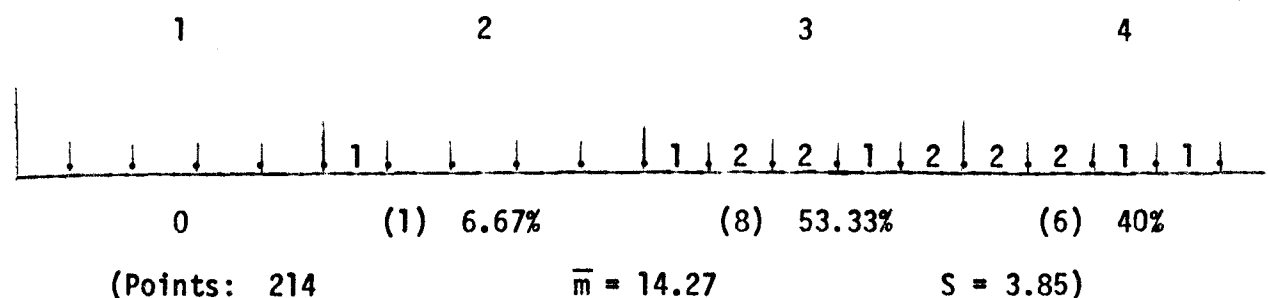
Operating Characteristics: Extent to which superintendent's motives conflict with or reinforce one another in written board policies.

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<sup>18</sup>Pensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 103.

- Operating Processes:
- (1) Marked conflict reducing support of policies.
  - (2) Conflict often exists but occasionally with reinforce motives.
  - (3) Some conflict, but often will reinforce motives.
  - (4) Motives generally enforced in substantial and cumulative manner to support policies wholeheartedly.

## Group "A" Responses



Nearly all the respondents in Group A accept the board's role in policy formulation. All but one respondent indicated that the board gives the superintendents the opportunity to express opinions and recommendations on policy formulation. One respondent selecting a point value in the fourth dimension stated: "Ninety percent of the policies are formed by the staff and myself."

Most respondents agreed that it is difficult to pin point any one area on which conflict exists. This will vary depending upon the composition of board members. Generally, however, if conflict exists, the issues of spending and allocation of funds to projects appear to constitute the heart of the problem.

There appeared to be a consensus among the respondents that conflict and differences of opinion always exist, but most also agreed that new and better objectives and programs often emerge. Salary schedules, differentiated staffing,

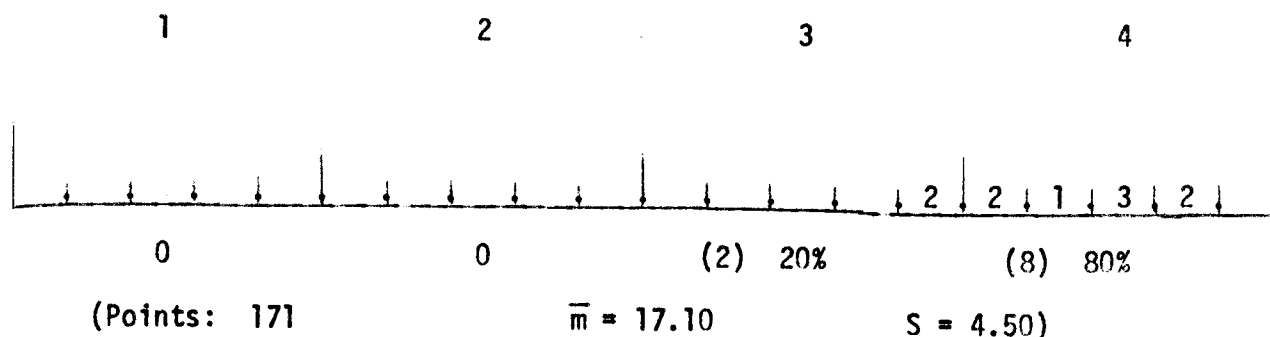
methods of measuring accountability, building-rental policy, and curricular innovations in sex education and social studies were mentioned by more than half of the respondents as areas in which conflict between the board and superintendent arose to some degree.

One respondent stated that, in his many years of experience as superintendent, he found conflict over policies to be at a minimum when the board implements policies within the scope of general principles to permit flexibility and wide latitude for interpretation. Policies which are too rigid lead to problems, do not reinforce a superintendent's motives, and reduce confidence and trust in the board's decisions.

Another administrator explained that both the board and superintendents must develop a mutual confidence, loyalty, and cooperation. When these exist, there is a cooperative motivation to produce earnest, sincere and determined efforts to resolve conflicts with amenable solutions.

The respondents in Group A appear to exhibit motivation to find constructive solutions rather than to maintain an irreconcilable conflict over policy matters. They exhibit keen understanding for the need, in every conflict situation, of a balanced use of procedures and individuals to deal constructively with conflict situations. In general, some conflict exists, but often will reinforce the respondents' motives. In this situation, superintendents lean towards the participative group style of leadership in their interaction with school board members on policy matters.

## Group "B" Responses



Some of the reactions to this item by the respondents are given below:

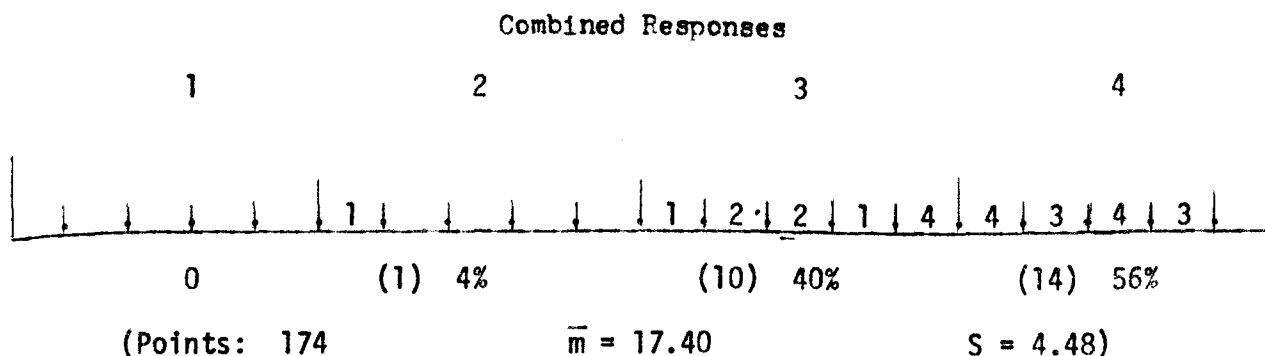
Generally, my motives and the policies reinforce one another, although on occasion I have to sidestep an issue because there is nothing to gain by bucking the school board members.

I support their policies wholeheartedly. We have very few written policies. I have no problems that cannot be resolved in one way or another. Only one board member poses a problem by his constant reminders that I should run the school district as economically as possible by reducing expenditures.

I do not believe in spelling out everything in written words. I like a little elbow-room so that my motives will be reinforced by agreed upon interpretation of a policy. This is the best way to resolve conflicts. Never paint yourself into a corner unless you paint a door.

I'm a company man -- and operate under policies formulated jointly through participation of principals, staff, teachers and parents.

There appears to be less conflict on policy matters between Group B and school board members than between Group A and the board. Perhaps, because Group B is more definitive in their objectives and in their recommendations to the board, they are more successful than Group A in influencing the board to arrive at policy decisions which reinforce their motives. All respondents agreed that, invariably, if conflict over policy exists, it is generally associated with financial and budgetary matters.



Twice as many respondents in Group B than in Group A exercise a participative group or "democratic" leadership style in their interaction with school board members on policy matters. More than half of the combined total perceived their leadership process on policy matters as participative or "democratic." The majority of the respondents appear to indicate that their motives are generally reinforced in a substantial and cumulative manner to support board policies. This further indicates a good supportive relationship between the superintendents and school board members.

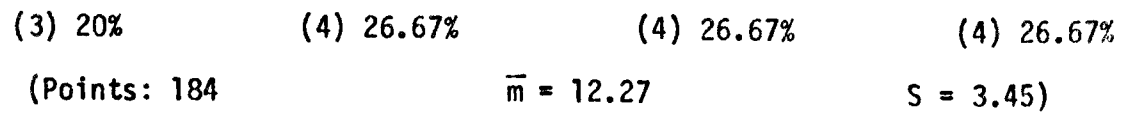
#### Item (c)

Category: Communication interaction.

Operating Characteristics: Amount of interaction and communication with the school board aimed at improving administrative techniques and developing competent school staff.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little interaction and communication  
 (2) Little  
 (3) Quite a bit  
 (4) Much

**1**



Approximately forty-seven percent of the respondents selecting leadership style communicate little or very little with the school board on matters pertaining to developing administrative techniques and developing a competent school staff. These superintendents indicated that the board seldom or never questions them regarding the evaluation of administrative or supervisory techniques. This group felt that the board would not know how to advise them on such matters, nor would they even know "how to evaluate any programs to improve administrative and, particularly, supervisory techniques."

More than half of the administrators in this group, however, indicated that the board demonstrates interest in ways and means to improve administrative techniques. They indicated that one of the ways in which this interest was and is exhibited is through the board's continuing attention to the need for administering a merit rating procedure for dispensing salary increases to the staff and teachers. Four of this group mentioned the use of an evaluative instrument to rate principals and supervisors.

One of the innovations described by a respondent in the fourth dimension of the scale was a salary schedule which permits all teachers, staff and administrators to reach the maximum amount on the salary schedule without differentiating academic degree attainment. Steps in the salary schedule are

called career levels, and not automatic experience levels. The board can withhold the salary increment for a given teacher or staff member at the recommendation of the superintendent.

Another superintendent reported that the board has shown keen interest in "differentiated staffing." The board supports him on his thinking concerning salary increases. This superintendent's position on salary increases is clearly reflected in the following statement made during the interview:

If someone had thought of "differentiated staffing" a long time ago, educational administration would be in a better position today. Salary schedules based on an index is *passé*. Salary schedules need a built-in stabilizer which would take into consideration professional performances.

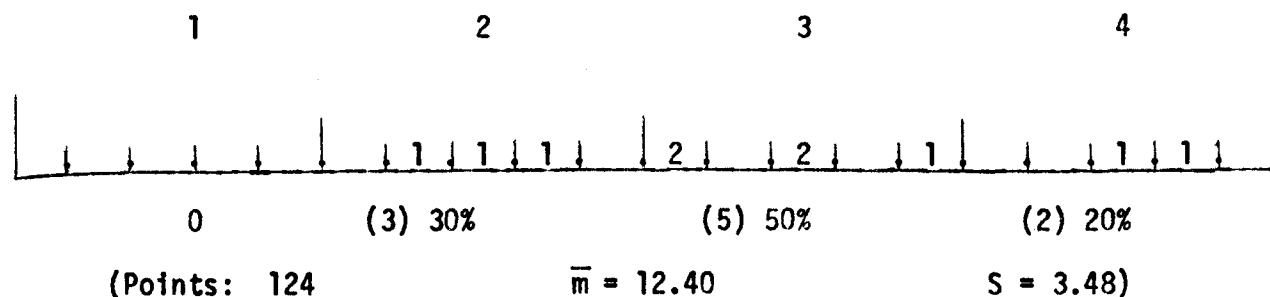
The board is well aware of these problems and looks for solutions to reward and compensate for performance. The concept of accountability supported by objective and less subjective evaluative underpinnings is fully embraced by my board.

Communication appears to be the key operating process of superintendents who indicated that they have "quite a bit" or "much" interaction with their boards on matters of administrative and supervisory techniques. It appears that the self-perceived role of the superintendents in toto is to recommend, implement and control the techniques. A little less than half feel that this area is strictly their prerogative, and not the board's. The other half, although not relinquishing their control in this area, feel that the board should be informed through upward communication. It is apparent that those administrators who interact and communicate with their boards welcome evaluative feedback on their efforts through downward communication, and feel the board should show interest in this area.

As a group, the leadership style selectors appear to exercise a middle of the road consultative leadership process whereby they inform the board, but control the programs or lack of programs to improve administrative and

supervisory techniques.

### Group "B" Responses

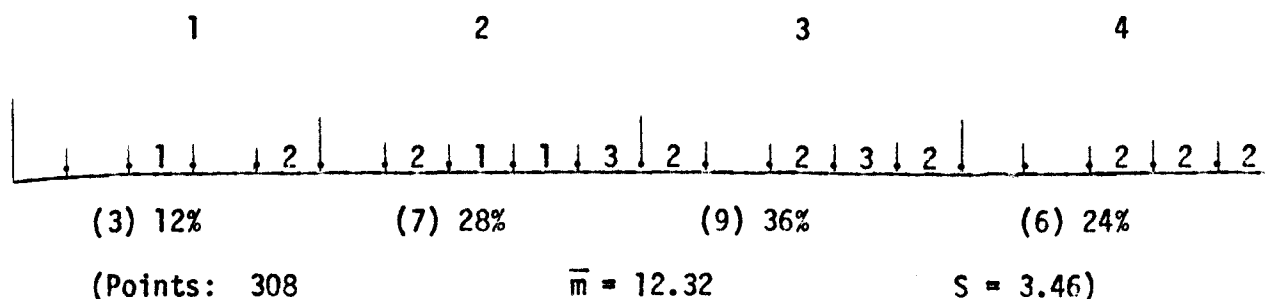


None of the goal selectors chose the exploitive authoritative leadership process. A large majority (70 percent) indicated a high degree of communication and interaction with the school board on matters of administrative and supervisory techniques. The three respondents who indicated little interaction and communication felt that it was their responsibility to evaluate the performance of their principals and staff, and to make every effort to improve the performance of their administrators and supervisors.

This group of administrators demonstrated more concern, than the leadership style selectors, in communicating and interacting with the board on the improvement of supervision in the instructional area rather than in areas of finances, salary schedules, merit ratings and accountability. Their focus was more directed at better administration and supervision of instructional programs.



## Combined Responses



Responses indicated that, even though the goal selectors communicate and interact with the school board members more than the leadership style selectors, on matters pertaining to the improvement of administrative and supervisory techniques, more than one fourth of the Group A superintendents, as compared to one fifth of the Group B administrators, perceive themselves as exercising a democratic or participative style of leadership. However, one half of Group B as compared to a little more than one fourth of Group A perceived their role as consultative.

Group A responses in the benevolent authoritative dimension were slightly less than those of Group B. The significant difference between the two groups is that twenty percent of the Group A respondents' self-perception of leadership style is authoritative exploitive, and none of the Group B respondents view themselves in this role.

Group A exhibits some motivational forces which block upward communication on this issue. Their effects could have adverse consequences at the board level.

Chief executive officers, boards of directors, and heads of government who are confronted with the breakdown of upward communication usually ask. "why did not my subordinates who knew the facts report them to me?" Unfortunately, this is the wrong question.... The question that urgently needs to be asked is: "What is wrong with the management system

we are using, which causes these serious failures in upward communication, and what corrective action should be taken?"<sup>19</sup>

The intelligent management of resources for human needs must be a major concern in education for the seventies. The board and the superintendent, with his administrators and staff, must participate in stating goals, figure out ways to accomplish the goals, get on with the task by using resources as best they can, and coldly evaluate the results. This is accountability and school boards are increasingly being held accountable.

There is an apparent need for more communication between superintendents and school boards so that both can report their accountability to the community. This will require rigorous examination of administrative and supervisory techniques and practices. Such an approach by school boards and superintendents will lend itself to far more effective and sophisticated management than "that art form known as steering by the seat of the pants."<sup>20</sup>

#### Item (c)

Category: Interaction influence

Operating Characteristic: Amount and character of interaction with board on policy matters.

Operating Processes: (1) Little and always with fear  
 (2) Little with condescension and caution  
 (3) Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence and trust

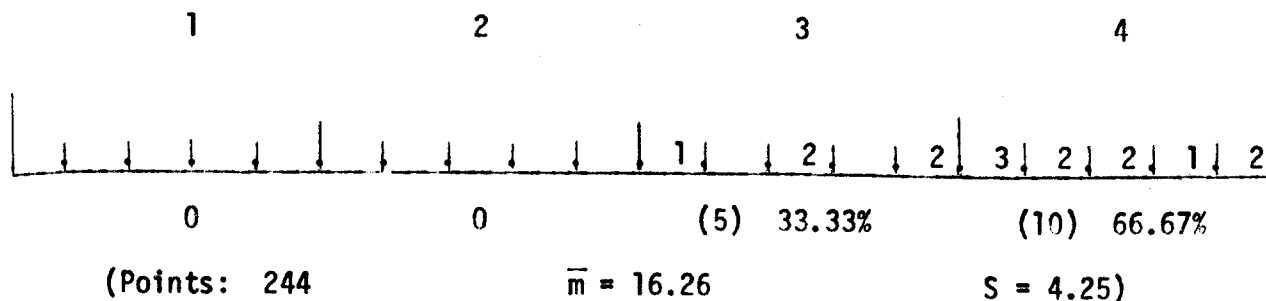
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<sup>19</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization, p. 110.

<sup>20</sup>Stanton Leggett, "Thirteen Imperatives for Boards in the Seventies," p. 20.

(4) Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence  
and trust

Group "A" Responses



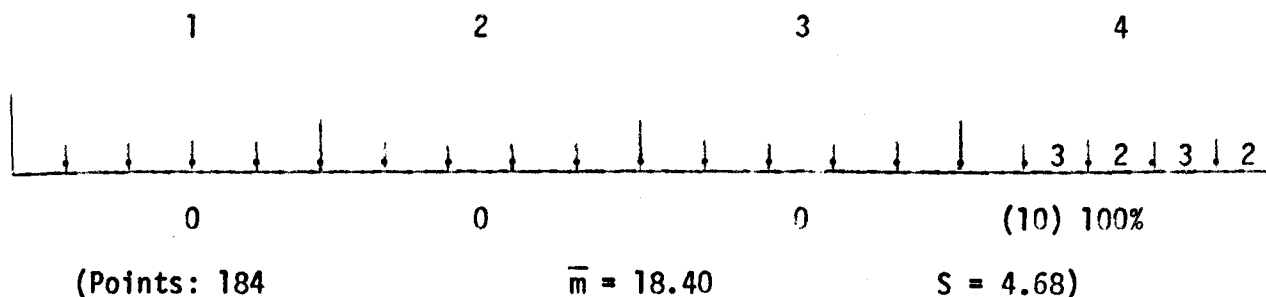
About two thirds of the respondents indicated that their interpersonal relationship with school board members on policy matters is excellent. This portion of Group A felt that the board permits free flow and exchange of information from themselves and their staff, aimed at recommending policies. The other one third perceived themselves to be on good, friendly relations with the board when policies were formulated or interpreted; but this portion of Group A respondents appeared to dwell more on the disagreements which may occur on policy matters. However, they all stated that disagreements are settled amicably and with compromise.

Those superintendents who selected point values on dimension 4 expressed a general feeling of satisfaction over their interaction with the board on policy matters, although they did admit that areas of disagreement may exist. One respondent stated: "I am very blessed with a good board which listens and does not perform as an authoritative obstructionist group." Another respondent, showing some signs of uncertainty, commented: "They just hired me, so we must have a mutual feeling of confidence and trust in one another." This

group exhibits a self-perceived participative group style of leadership.

Superintendents selecting point values on the third dimension are consultative in their leadership style, and appear to be more restrained in their favorable comments on how they interact with the school board on policy matters.

#### Group "B" Responses

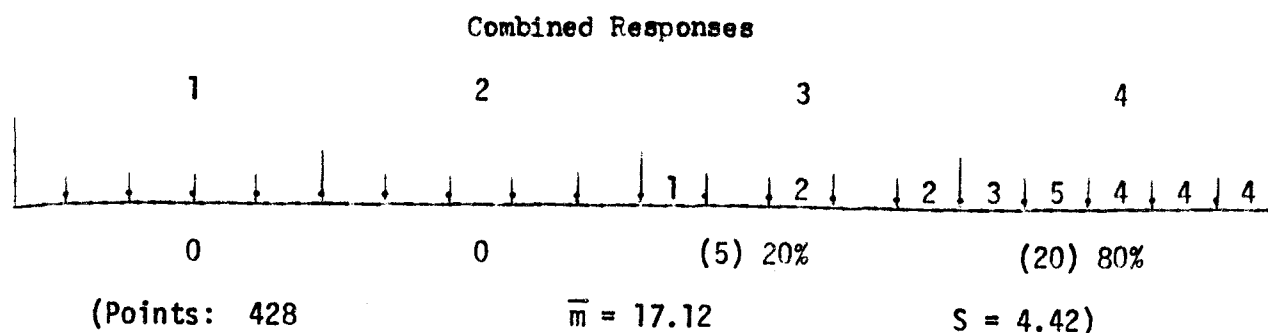


All superintendents in Group B indicated an extensive and friendly interaction with the board on matters of policy. They indicated that they have a free hand on policy matters and are not obstructed in any way to make recommendations. One respondent qualified his response by stating that he has "a free hand on policy matters -- except, I have to tread lightly with one board member." Another respondent stated:

I have nothing to gain by opposing school board members. My major role with them is to obtain sufficient background material and data -- and to convert school board members to the right decisions.

This group appeared to be less sensitive to disagreements on policy matters than Group A respondents. Even though some policy decisions by the Board do not reinforce their motives, they appear to maintain a higher degree of friendly interpersonal relations with the school board than do the Group A respondents. These superintendents appear to be more zealous in welcoming the

challenge of convincing the board on the acceptance of their policy recommendations.



Eighty percent of the total groups combined perceived themselves as using the participative group leadership process in their interaction with the board on policy matters. Twenty percent of the combined groups, all leadership style selectors, perceived themselves as exercising a consultative leadership process and appeared to be more sensitive to disagreements on policy matters. But, all admitted that conflict over policy matters does occur and, when it does occur, disagreements are settled amicably and on a very friendly basis. Major areas of conflict have been mentioned in the analysis of item two. In general, there is indication that superintendents exert great effort in maintaining good relations with the school board members.

#### Item (e)

Category: Goal setting or ordering

Operating Characteristics: Manner in which superintendents set programs to achieve curricular innovations.

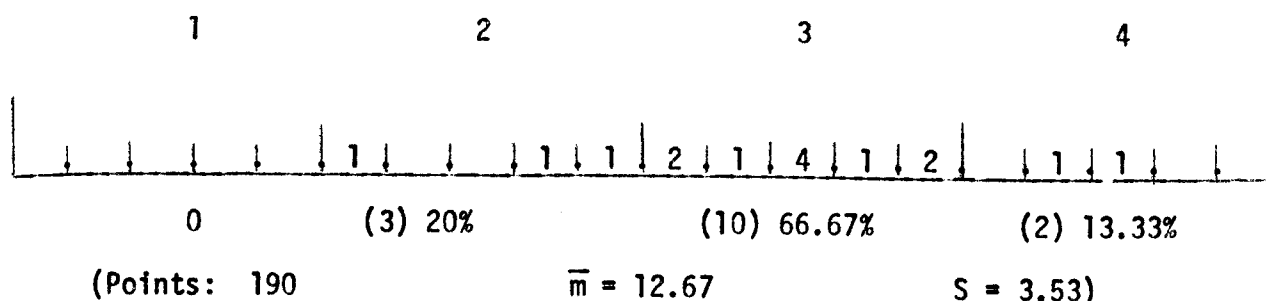
Operating Processes: (1) Bulletin issued to board

(2) Bulletin issued; opportunity to comment may or may not exist

(3) Goals and programs are set after discussion of problem and planned action

(4) Goals and programs are established by board participation

#### Group "A" Responses



Twenty percent of the superintendents in this group indicated that goals and programs affecting curricular innovations are set without any participation by the school board. All respondents admitted to the need of establishing goals and programs to achieve curricular innovations. Approximately two thirds of the respondents implemented curricular innovations after discussing the problem and planned action with the school board, but these superintendents appear to reserve the responsibility of developing programs to their professional acumen. A small percentage (13.33%) establish goals and programs with full board participation.

When queried about the curricular areas in which the superintendents worked closely with the board to develop programs, nearly all the respondents mentioned sex education and social studies. Only one superintendent reported a difficulty in an area other than the two mentioned.

It was more of a problem to set up a library than to develop a course of studies on sex education. The reason for this was that

establishing a library meant spending more money. The need for additional revenue to finance curricular innovations, no matter what they may be, is always a problem and such innovations cannot be implemented on the strength of a bulletin sent to the board -- no matter what anyone may say.

A respondent selecting the consultative leadership process stated that:

"Four or five years ago a blue ribbon committee was appointed by the school board to develop a long range program in the curricular area. Results were presented to and sanctioned by the board."

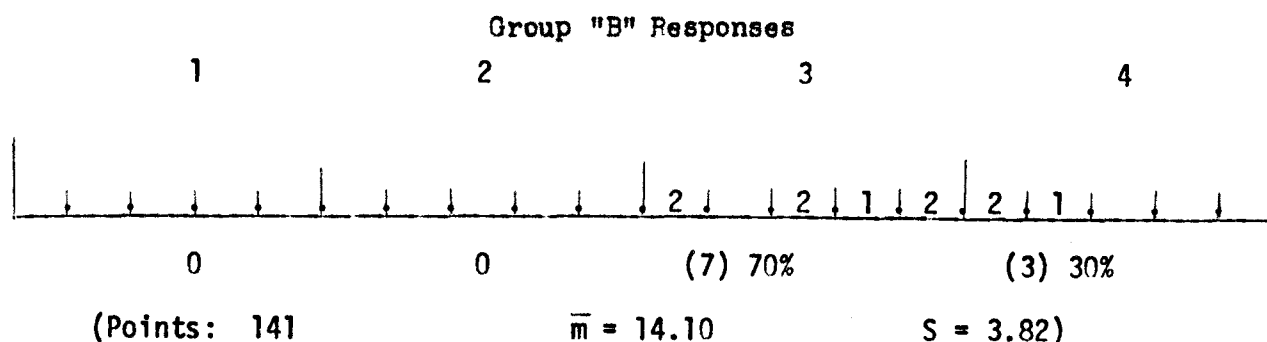
All respondents, except three, reported that, generally, curricular changes are planned through committee action. Two superintendents stated that their committees have board representation. Both of these respondents are superintendents of North Shore school districts.

More than half of the respondents stated that the Teachers' Committee is the vehicle through which curricular changes and innovations are programmed. The teacher heading up the committee presents the committee recommendation to the superintendent or the board.

Sex education and changes in the social studies curriculum appear to be the major areas which require more than teacher-staff committee actions. All respondents indicated that these two areas require community involvement in order for the innovations to become acceptable. Comments gleaned from the interviews with nearly one third of the respondents point to the sensitivity of implementing curricular changes in social studies, since these changes require acceptance by such groups as the John Birch Society, American Legion, the Jewish Community, other denominational groups, League of Women Voters, and parents.

Superintendents expressed a genuine desire and intent to gain full

participation from the board and various community groups in planning curricular changes and innovations in these two areas. All superintendents commenting on the problems of arriving at full agreement on programs by all concerned exhibit an attitude of serving the total community and respecting the position taken on controversial issues by representative groups. Aside from these two curricular areas, the leadership style selectors appear to advise the board of their problem and action to be taken, without actually involving the board with details of the programs.



Goal selectors are more goal oriented than leadership style selectors, but all respondents felt that they must take the initiative in establishing goals and programs with consultation or participation of school board members. This group appears to exhibit more participative behavior than leadership style selectors.

More than half the respondents agreed that: (1) curricular innovations are implemented after general discussion and communication with the Board, (2) the superintendent must take the initiative in setting goals, (3) they want to hear what the board has to say about recommendations on goals and programs, and (4) in case of disagreements, they would invoke their staff's recommendations and support. Nearly all the respondents made a distinction between

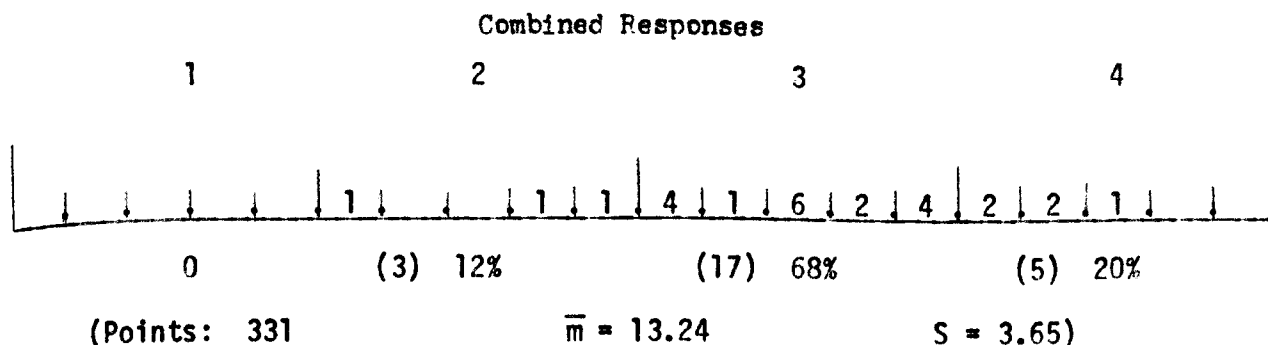


goals and programs as they relate to their interaction with the board. This distinction was clearly stated by one superintendent when he commented:

There is a great deal of participation on establishing goals, but developing programs is my concern as chief school officer. It is not the board's business to be involved in the actual details of the programs.

It appears that there is consensus among respondents of this group on the desirability of submitting and "selling" curricular innovations and changes to the board before implementation. "The board likes to be informed -- good communications sell a lot and dispel misunderstanding. For example, sex education and modification of social studies can cause problems if not handled properly. Every school administrator knows the need is there, but he must be cautious on how he will go about setting the programs." About half of this group also mentioned sex education and social studies modifications as the two sensitive areas requiring expanded participation in program development.

Goal selectors appear to be more directed towards the participative style of leadership than the leadership style selectors. They are more intent on setting goals than Group A respondents, but they also are more willing to participate with the board in attaining consensus and agreement on stated goals. They appear to be more aggressive in this area than Group A respondents, but they also exhibit a stronger willingness to sell the board on the goals and programs related to curricular innovations.



None of the respondents appear to exhibit a self-perceived exploitive style of leadership with the board on the procedure of setting goals in curricular innovations. Only twelve percent perceive themselves as authoritative benevolent. More than two thirds perceive themselves as consultative, indicating that they feel it is their professional responsibility to set the goals and programs and submit these to the board for approval. One fifth of the respondents feel that they must participate with the board in setting goals and programs. Only twenty percent perceive their role in this interaction process as democratic or participative group.

According to Likert, administrators operating in Systems 1 and 2 can develop high performance goals. But the variables accompanying this style of leadership also yield unfavorable attitudes, distrust, poor communication, low levels of both influence and cooperative motivation, and low performance goals.<sup>21</sup> The implications for the three respondents in the second dimension are apparent.

<sup>21</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization, p. 138.

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT OF  
SUPERINTENDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES  
IN THEIR INTERACTION WITH THE SCHOOL BOARD

TABLE 2-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	(1) 6.67%	0 0 %	(10) 66.67%	(4) 26.60%
(b)	0 0	(1) 6.67	(8) 53.33	(6) 40.00
(c)	(3) 20.00	(4) 26.67	(4) 26.67	(4) 26.67
(d)	0 0	0 0	(5) 33.33	(10) 66.67
(e)	0 0	(3) 20.00	(10) 66.67	(2) 13.33
TOTAL	(4) 5.34	(8) 10.66	(37) 49.33	(26) 34.67

TABLE 2-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	0	0 0 %	(8) 80.00%	(2) 20.00%
(b)	0	0 0	(2) 20.00	(8) 80.00
(c)	0	(3) 30.00	(5) 50.00	(2) 20.00
(d)	0	0 0	0 0	(10) 100.00
(e)	0	0 0	(7) 70.00	(3) 30.00
TOTAL	0	(3) 6.00	(22) 44.00	(25) 50.00

TABLE 2-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	(1) 4.00%	0 0 %	(18) 72.00%	(6) 24.00%
(b)	0 0	(1) 4.00	(10) 40.00	(14) 56.00
(c)	(3) 12.00	(7) 28.00	(9) 36.00	(6) 24.00
(d)	0 0	0 0	(5) 20.00	(20) 80.00
(e)	0 0	(3) 12.00	(17) 68.00	(5) 20.00
TOTAL	(4) 3.20	(11) 8.80	(59) 47.20	(51) 40.80

SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND  
SCORES OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES OF  
SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR INTERACTION WITH THE  
SCHOOL BOARD

TABLE 3-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	206	13.73	3.75
(b)	214	14.27	3.85
(c)	184	12.27	3.45
(d)	244	16.26	4.25
(e)	190	12.67	3.53
TOTAL	1038	13.84	3.77

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 75; highest possible points = 1,500.

TABLE 3-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	144	14.40	3.88
(b)	171	17.10	4.50
(c)	124	12.40	3.48
(d)	184	18.40	4.68
(e)	141	14.10	3.82
TOTAL	764	15.28	4.06

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 50; highest possible points = 1,000.

TABLE 3-3

Combined Group

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	350	14.00	3.80
(b)	385	15.40	4.08
(c)	308	12.32	3.46
(d)	428	17.12	4.42
(e)	331	13.24	3.65
TOTAL	1802	14.42	3.88

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 125; highest possible points = 2,500.

## Interaction Group 2 - Principals and Staff Members

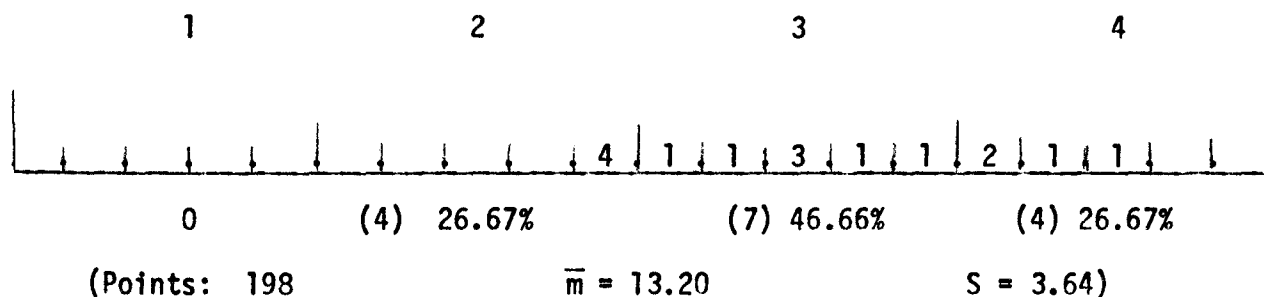
Item (a)

Category: Supportive behavior.

Operating Characteristics: Extent to which superintendents have confidence and trust in principals' and staff members' recommendations on budgets.

Operating Processes: (1) No confidence and trust  
 (2) Condescending confidence and trust  
 (3) Substantial but not complete  
 (4) Complete confidence and trust

## Group "A" Responses



A little more than one fourth of the respondents expressed a condescending confidence and trust in budget recommendations of their principals and staff members. They appear to listen to their requests and recommendations, but indicate that they preclude decisions on how funds should be spent. These superintendents appear to uphold the following opinion expressed by one of the respondents.

I listen to their demands and desires, but when it comes to spending, they (principals and staff) exhibit individualized attitudes and they have a difficult time relating the cost of their suggested spending to availability of funds.

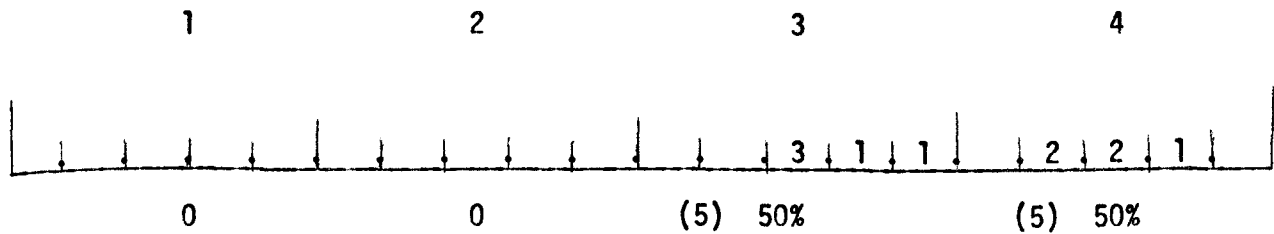
The 46.67 percent of the respondents who perceived their leadership process as consultative expect their principals and staff to participate in budget making, but their confidence in budget judgments of this reference group is not complete. Generally, these respondents feel that superintendents must know which priorities for spending should be established and should keep control of budget decisions. All respondents indicated that they cannot have complete confidence in this interaction group on fiscal matters, because "everyone tends to protect his own domain."

Superintendents who perceive their leadership process as participative or democratic, have complete confidence in their principals and staff, and view them as very capable in "seeing the big picture on financial matters and parameters of spending." One respondent in this group stated:

I don't hire any principals or staff members who are not competent to budget for educational programs in relation to pupil needs. If I have no confidence in their budgeting ability -- or any other function they are expected to perform -- I get rid of them.

More than three fourths of the respondents appear to be willing to grant some degree of participation in budget recommendations, but indicate very clearly that they wish to keep control over how funds will be spent. All four respondents, who perceive themselves as democratic in their interaction with their principals and staff on budget recommendations, administer school districts located in the North Shore area of Cook County. The mean of all scores on the scale indicates that, as a group, these respondents tend to exercise a consultative leadership process approaching the democratic style.

## Group "B" Respondents



(Points: 147)

 $\bar{m} = 14.70$  $S = 3.94$ 

The goal selectors appear to have more confidence than leadership style selectors in budget recommendations of their principals and staff. One half of the respondents selecting a consultative leadership process indicated that their principals and staff should participate and become involved only indirectly in budgeting procedures because someone must coordinate the recommendations and translate them into a total dollar amount. At this point, budget decisions become the concern of the superintendent. One respondent stated:

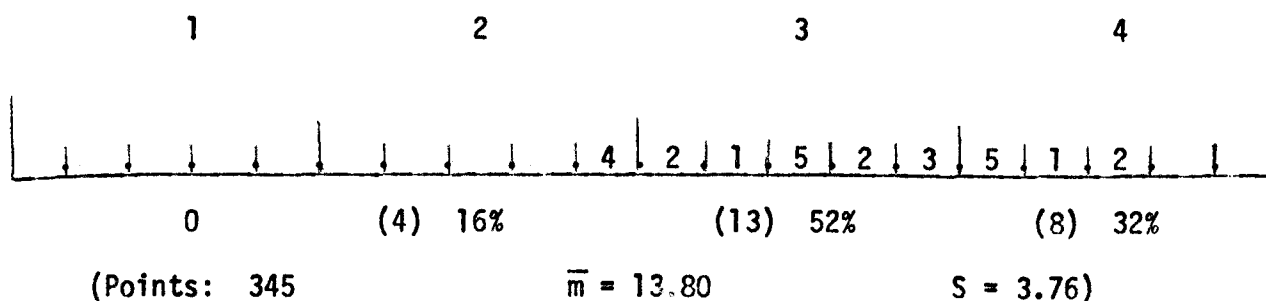
My business manager does a fine job in working out budget matters with principals and staff members. So, my confidence in her is greater than in the principals' and staff members' ability to budget.

Another respondent indicated that principals are not adequately trained in financial matters to enable them to submit budgets without analyzing and reviewing budget content in terms of dollars. Priorities must be set and the money must be spent where it will serve the community best.

The other half of the respondents selecting the participative leadership process expressed full confidence and trust in their staff's ability to present budget recommendations in terms of educational needs and to determine where budget cuts should be made. One superintendent responded negatively when asked whether he employs a method or technique to evaluate the principals' abilities to allocate financial resources to programs which would yield the highest return on the investment. He commented as follows:

If you are referring to PPBS, I do not believe in it. The principal becomes involved only indirectly in Planned Program Budgeting Systems wherever they exist. They may be good for \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_, but my principals and staff do not place emphasis on the pupil as a product or commodity in the same way that marketing is practiced by a business concern.

#### Combined Responses



Group B respondents appear to exhibit more confidence and trust in their principals' and staffs' ability to prepare budget recommendations. This is probably due to a greater amount of interaction and communication between this group and the interaction group than is present in the relationship between Group A and their principals and staff.

As a group, superintendents exhibit a leadership process on the upper portion of the consultative leadership process dimension, tending towards the participative. It appears that they do not have complete confidence in their principals and staff on budgetary matters and would like to retain control over the allocation of financial resources to educational needs.

#### Item (b)

Category: Motivational forces.

Operating Characteristics: Superintendents' evaluation of the amount of responsibility felt by principals and staff for



improving the quality of teaching.

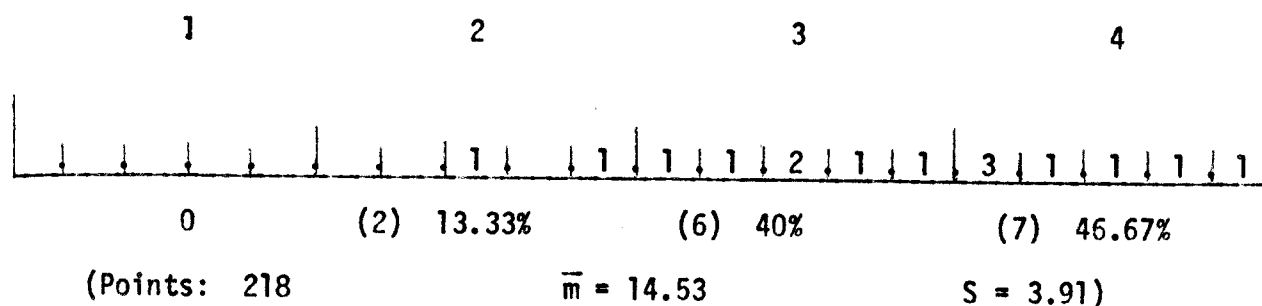
Operating Processes: (1) Very little

(2) Some

(3) Substantial

(4) Real responsibility and motivation to implement techniques.

#### Group "A" Responses



One respondent, selecting a point value on dimension 2, commented:

"They're educators, aren't they?" The other respondent in this dimension did not feel that teachers share a great enough responsibility in this area. The two respondents perceived themselves as benevolent authoritative in their interaction with principals and staff on the issue of improving the quality of teaching.

More than half of the respondents felt that they have competent administrators and supervisors. One superintendent stated: "If they deviate from the programs, designed to attain the objectives, I will attempt to steer them back on the right track." The consultative group of respondents appeared to stress the "coaching" technique to motivate this interaction group towards

improving the quality of teaching.

About half of the respondents mentioned one major problem in their interaction with the principals and staff, namely, their evaluation of teachers. The following comment by one of the respondents reflects the unanimous sentiment of these superintendents on this issue:

Probably the major reason for lack of further progress in the improvement of quality of teaching is that there is no objective tool which can be utilized for evaluating the effectiveness of teaching effort. The evaluation is primarily very subjective and up to this time we have not been able to outline specific guidelines agreeable to all the principals on how teachers should be evaluated. The evaluation process is a very difficult problem.

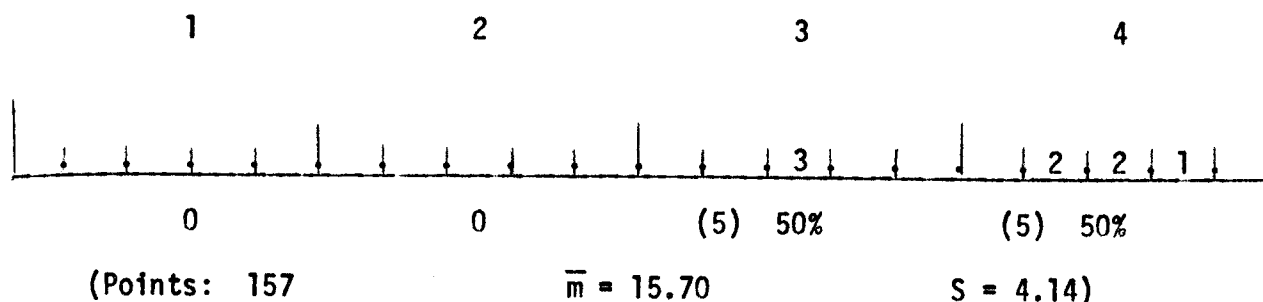
Nearly fifty percent of the respondents felt that their principals and staff share a real, genuine responsibility for improving the quality of teaching. More programs geared toward improving the quality of teaching appeared to have been implemented by those Group A respondents who selected the participative group leadership process than by those who selected responses on other dimensions of the scale. The programs utilized by the superintendents consist of reports, weekly meetings and exchange of information relating to problems encountered by principals and staff in the areas of: (1) classroom management, (2) materials utilization, (3) district services, and (4) special services, such as, social, psychological, nursing and medical.

Two thirds of the respondents utilize a tool for evaluating principals, staff members and teachers. One superintendent evaluates his staff two times each year. Another superintendent explained an extensive evaluation plan through merit rating and produced this as the best evidence of interest in improving the quality of instruction.

In general, about two thirds of Group A respondents felt that their

principals and staff share a responsibility in improving teaching, but nearly all agreed that a valid, objective evaluative technique and tool to measure teaching effectiveness is lacking.

#### Group "B" Responses



Group B respondents appear to exert an influence which points to a self-perceived behavior in support of the principals' and staffs' genuine acceptance of responsibility to improve quality of teaching. There appears to be less conflict on issues of teaching quality for this group as compared with responses from Group A. The high degree of acceptance of responsibility by principals and staff for improving the quality of teaching tends to reinforce the superintendents' motives to provide the best possible education for pupils in the community.

All respondents indicated that principals and staff members have a major role as team members to improve the quality of teaching. Although they are not all equally involved in policy matters, they have an important role to play in programming teaching techniques. About half the respondents felt that their principals and staff work diligently at improving the quality of education, but "many teachers, not all, are prima donnas and it is difficult for the principals

and supervisors to extract any cooperative programs with teachers to improve their methods. This is a tough one to sell -- because results of teaching methods are difficult to evaluate."

Eight of the respondents in this group mentioned periodic meetings with supervisors and principals for a two-fold purpose, namely, (1) communication, and (2) in-service work to improve quality of teaching. About half of these respondents stated they conduct monthly meetings. One superintendent conducts weekly meetings with his principals to discuss instructional techniques and results.

The most impressive and encouraging program designed for improving quality of instruction was explained by a recently hired North Shore superintendent. He was in the process of finalizing the presentation to the Board at the time of the interview. This superintendent selected the highest point value on the scale and his plan merits attention. The respondent explained his program as follows:

(1) First, I am decidedly a goal setter, but definitely not authoritarian in my style.

(2) My principals and staff have never been given the opportunity for full participation in programs designed to improve instruction. Given the opportunity, I find them genuinely interested, responsible and accountable.

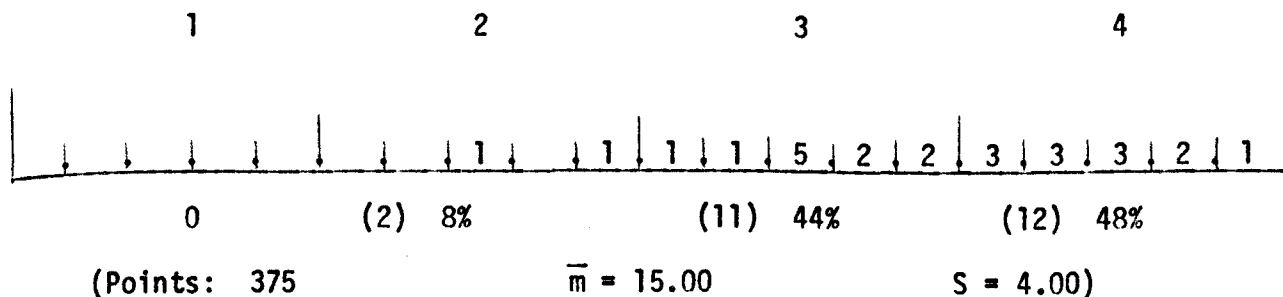
(3) They worked with approximately sixty teachers on instructional improvements.

(4) I am in the process of developing and implementing the operational elements of a Curriculum Council, Teacher-Welfare Council, and Finance Council, to achieve full participation by all groups working jointly towards continuous improvement of instruction.

(5) The Curriculum Council consists of twenty-seven people (17 teachers, 2 principals, 1 assistant principal, 1 superintendent, 2 board members, 2 representatives from pupil services, and 2 consultants).

(6) The structure focuses on children and is intended to break away from professional negotiations.

## Combined Responses



Nearly half of the Group A respondents and one half of the Group B respondents perceive their leadership process as participative group or democratic in their interaction with principals and staff on the issue of improving the quality of teaching. Group B respondents appear to be more active than Group A respondents in developing programs for teaching improvement and seek cooperation and participation from many sources.

It appears that more than ninety percent of the respondents feel that their principals show responsibility and motivation to implement techniques but the majority focused on two problems which need solutions: (1) there is a need for an evaluative tool which would be capable of assessing objectively teachers' instructional efforts, and (2) motivation of teachers to be more interested in improving the quality of their teaching.

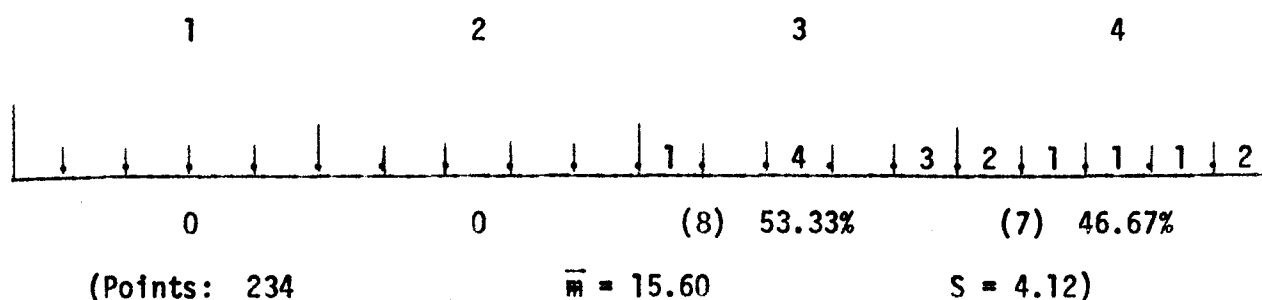
Item (c)

Category: Communication interaction.

Operating Characteristics: Amount of interaction and communication by superintendents with principals and staff to improve administrative and supervisory techniques.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little  
 (2) Little  
 (3) Quite a bit  
 (4) Much

#### Group "A" Responses



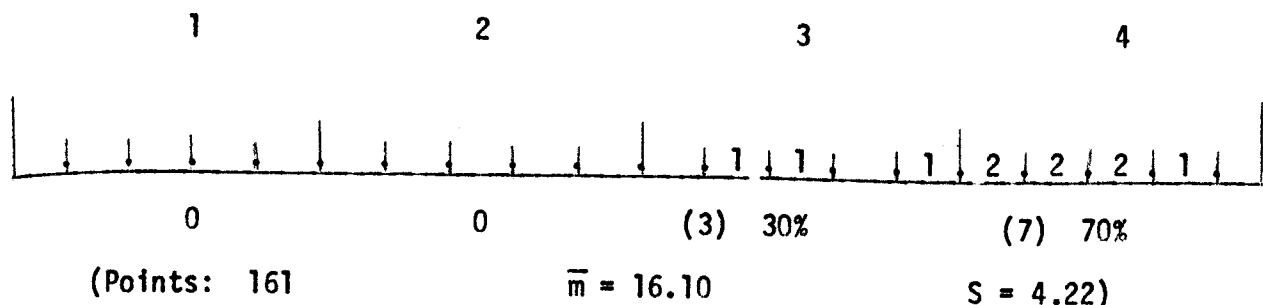
As a group, superintendents placing emphasis on leadership style perceive themselves as employing a high degree of the democratic or participative leadership process. All superintendents indicated that they want good administration and supervision, and that they expect their principals and supervisors to be convinced of this. More than half of the respondents indicated the use of the "coaching" method to suggest techniques to improve administrative and supervisory practices.

The weekly meeting was mentioned by nearly all the respondents as a method utilized to strive for improvement. The major objective of these meetings appears to be the sharing of administrative techniques employed by the principals. Less frequent meetings are held between the superintendent and supervisors of special educational programs. All respondents indicated that there is a greater interaction and more communication between them and the central office staff, and much of this interaction is conducted on an informal basis.

More than half the respondents indicated that they do not employ definite programs to improve administrative and supervisory techniques. Most of the superintendents evaluate the performance of this interaction group by sitting down with them at least once a month and reviewing their accomplishments. As mentioned before, the day to day coaching technique is frequently used in addition to the weekly meetings. One superintendent stated that since the administrative function overlaps with the supervisory function, any meeting or program designed to improve either one exerts a meliorative effect on both functions simultaneously, because both roles are synergistic.

Only two superintendents from Group A highlighted the problem of getting their principals to agree on what stand the school board and administration should take with Teachers' Associations on matters of negotiation. However, it appears that superintendents in general feel that they should not become directly involved in negotiations and prefer to remain in the background. All superintendents appear to generate a substantial amount of communication between principals and staff on matters of policy, negotiable items, and improvement of administrative and supervisory techniques, but appear to be reticent in playing a direct role in negotiations.

## Group "B" Responses



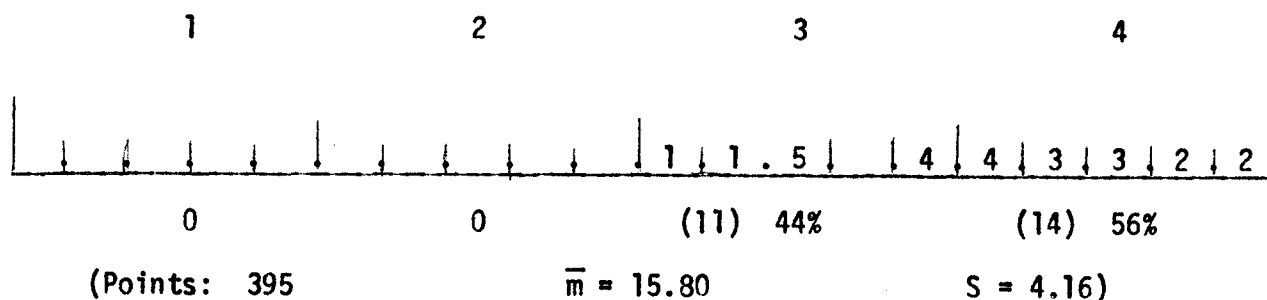
The Group B respondents scored higher on their leadership process in the communication - interaction operation with principals and staff. A greater percentage of goal selectors than leadership style selectors perceive themselves as participative group in their leadership style. A great deal of emphasis was placed on the need for "quite a bit" and "much" interaction and communication on policy matters in order to have good administration. These superintendents appear to be more aware than Group A respondents that policy formulation is an important function of administration.

All respondents indicated that total staff participation through open channels of communication is necessary. Exchange of problems, monthly meetings, individual meetings, speaker programs, professional periodicals, and an administrator from the business field or government, as an occasional speaker, invited to the monthly meeting to talk about motivation, morale, organizing one's work, and human relations, were some of the techniques mentioned by the respondents as programs geared toward the improvement of the communication process. One of the respondents mentioned that over the last four years, a University of Chicago consultant and his group have had approximately twelve meetings with his administrators.



It appears that this group of respondents is intent on maintaining a high level of communication and interaction with their principals and staff for purposes of understanding their inter-relationships, their roles, procedural matters, and policies. They appear to be more systematic in developing programs intended to maintain and sustain good communication and interaction. Respondents appear to possess a high degree of motivation to achieve good communications through full participation of principals and staff and encourage upward, downward and horizontal communication.

#### Combined Responses



In general, both groups perceive themselves as exercising a democratic style of leadership on the issue of improving administrative and supervisory techniques. This behavior is probably prompted by their desire to achieve full support and participation from principals and staff to achieve educational objectives. To do this, information flow must be downward, upward and with peers.

Communication is essential to the functioning of any organization. It is viewed widely as one of the most important processes of administration and it involves many dimensions. In educational administration there is a diversity of material to be transmitted. After transmittal, reception and comprehension constitute another dimension. The receiver may accept or reject the message.

The content of communication may be cognitive or motivational and emotional. Information or facts as to the current situation, problems, progress towards goals, ideas, suggestions, knowledge with regard to objectives, policies and actions are some of the elements of the cognitive content. Emotional climate or atmosphere, attitudes and reactions, loyalties and hostilities, feelings of support, appreciation or rejection, and goals and objectives are the content of the emotional and motivational material.<sup>22</sup>

In their interaction with principals and staff members, superintendents appear to elicit group participation through a high level of communication. Their self-perceived democratic leadership process in this area also indicates that they seek reciprocal confidence and trust on the part of their principals and staff.

#### Item (d)

Category: Interaction influence.

Operating Characteristics: Amount and character of interaction-influence exerted by superintendents in their interaction with principals and staff on policy matters.

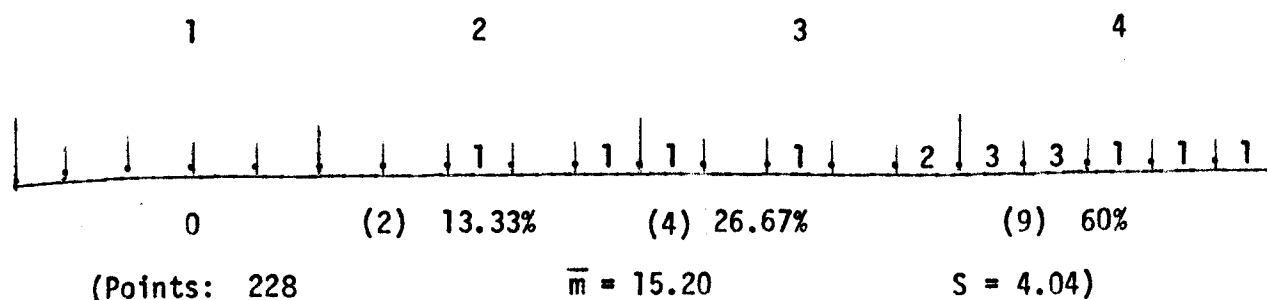
Operating Processes:

- (1) Little and always with reservation
- (2) Little, with some condescension and caution
- (3) Moderate and often with the least amount of confidence and trust
- (4) Extensive, friendly and with high degree of confidence and trust

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<sup>22</sup>Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 44.

## Group "A" Responses



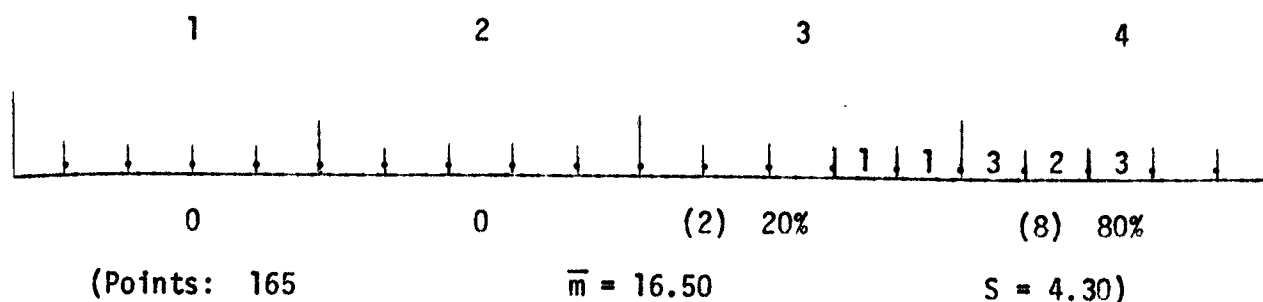
The two respondents, who selected point values in the second dimension of the scale on the issue of improving quality of teaching, appear again on this same dimension of the scale for item (d). It appears that they would prefer quite a bit of upward communication, but because of a lack of confidence in their principals and staff, downward communication is poor. This analysis is supported by the comment made by one respondent, "Policy matters belong primarily to the board and to me," and that of the other respondent, "On policy matters, I listen for feedback, evaluate it, question my principals and determine in my own mind whether the new policy, an interpretation of policy, or modification of policy may be required. You can't have everyone making policy."

The ability to exercise influence in an organization depends in part upon the effectiveness of its communication processes. It should not be surprising, consequently, to find that the scores for the self-perceived leadership processes of this group, in this category, show a relationship to and are comparable with those shown for communication.

Nearly all of the respondents indicated full participation and interaction with principals and staff on policy formulation. One respondent stated that: "We have a policy committee, and members of this committee produced the "Teachers' Handbook and Rules and Regulations." Ninety-five percent of the contributions

to these two publications came from principals, staff members and teachers. Superintendents in this group perceive themselves as being democratic in their leadership process and focus on policy formulation when discussing their interaction influence with the reference group in question.

#### Group "B" Responses

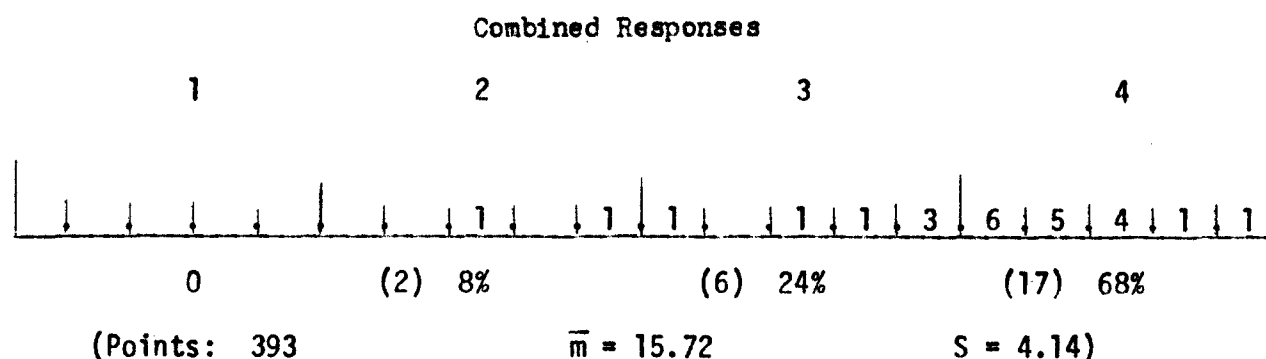


Eighty percent of the superintendents promote full participation with principals and staff on policy formulation. These administrators appear to know what the educational needs are and use their influence to present the ideas and programs through extensive interaction and communication which evokes a mutual trust and confidence between them and the reference group. They are willing to modify their original ideas and invoke full participation in policy formulation.

Those respondents selecting the consultative leadership process as their self-perceived style, appear to rely on the feedback which they receive from their interaction and communication with principals and staff. They are not as likely to condescend to recommendations made by the reference group, as would the superintendents whose self-perceived leadership style is participative group, but suggestions and modifications are given a hearing. Some of these superintendents stated that their job is to sell others on policy matters. One respondent in this group commented: "I get their feedback on policy matters.

This is where I am most effective in influencing principals and staff members. For example, we had a problem related to a dress code which my principals eventually worked out with the parents, based on my suggestions to which the principals agreed." These superintendents hope for voluntary participation in carrying out policy decisions.

As a group, however, the mean score indicates that, in this category, superintendents generally perceive their leadership process as participative group or democratic.



Superintendents, in general, are aware that they must maintain a network of interpersonal relationships among their first line administrators and staff personnel for two reasons: (1) they need feedback to make policy recommendations and decisions, and (2) they see a need for reciprocal trust and confidence required for good administration. The need appears to be even greater for the goal oriented superintendents who must present their programs on the strength of generated trust and confidence and in a climate of cooperative group formulation and approval of policies.

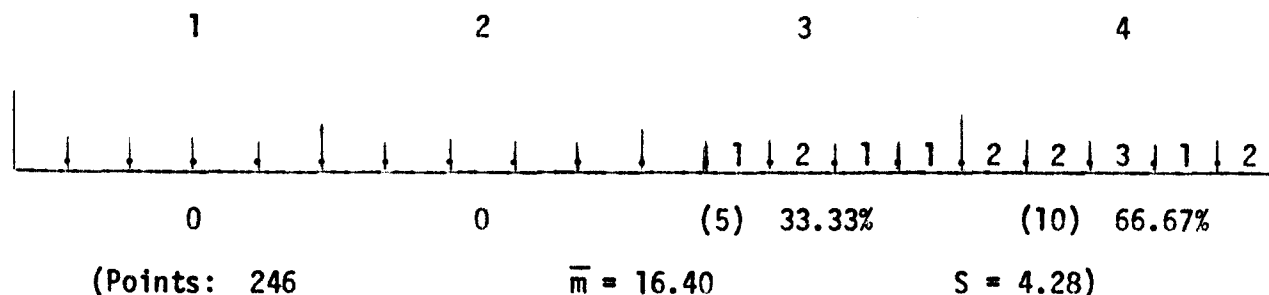
Item (e)

Category: Goal setting or ordering.

Operating Characteristics: Manner in which superintendents set programs to achieve curricular innovations.

Operating Processes: (1) Bulletin or memo issued  
 (2) Bulletin issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist  
 (3) Goals and programs are set after discussion and planned action  
 (4) Goals and programs are established by staff participation

## Group "A" Responses



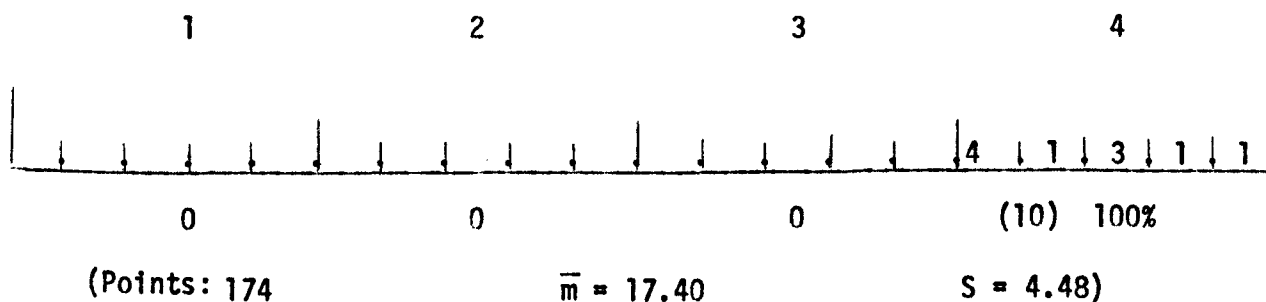
None of the Group A respondents embarks on programs of curricular innovations by using the System 1 or 2 leadership process. About one third of the respondents indicated that they proceed towards implementing curricular changes and innovations by accepting recommendations, looking for clues from the parents, community, teachers, newspaper articles, professional periodicals and other sources. They invite discussions on the recommendations and planned action from their principals and staff members. All agreed that teacher involvement should

be solicited. After discussions of the proposed curricular change or innovation, this group appears to prefer a selected committee under the direction of an Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum or a Curriculum Director to work out the goals and programs. Although full cooperation and participation are encouraged, complete autonomy is not granted to principals and staff.

About two thirds of the superintendents work out goals and programs through full participation of the principals and staff. This group espouses full participation by all involved in the instructional process when curricular change is required. These superintendents were very emphatic about total participation and involvement in curriculum development and their position on this issue is well represented by the following comment:

Nowadays, the only way you can achieve curricular change is through total involvement. I allow and encourage full participation by all when curricular change is required. On matters of budget and policies, I gather feedback and try to work out my own recommendations to be presented to the board. This is the area of greatest decision making in my role as superintendent -- budgets and policies. These two areas lend themselves to developing an identity as an administrator. But, when it comes to curriculum development, all my principals, staff and teachers need this area for identity as professional educators.

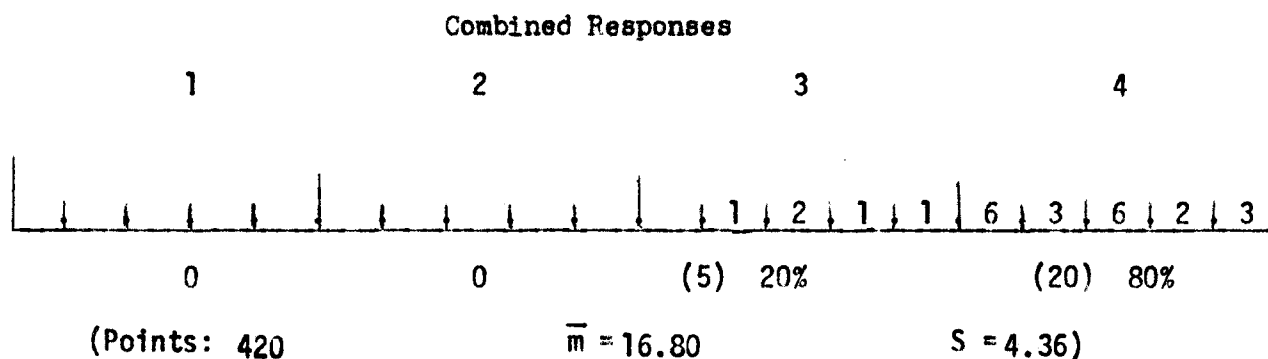
#### Group "B" Respondents



Staff participation was emphasized by all respondents without exception. Full participation was the key message in all the interviews with respondents from

this group.

Many superintendents laid the responsibility on the principals' role because "the principal, through his staff, is closer to the scene of curriculum needs than any other administrator." This group appears to be more bent on innovating. "Let's try it -- let's innovate. Change involves a perspective on a new method -- a new instructional area. Re-think that which we have been teaching. Innovations break the syndrome of doing something in an inflexible manner." This was the comment made by a thirty-three year old goal oriented superintendent of a medium size school district.



In the same manner that there is extensive interaction between superintendents and school board members on matters of policy, so, too, there is a comparable degree of interaction and participation among superintendents, principals and staff on matters of curricular innovations. A school district, if it is to function well, needs to have objectives which represent a satisfactory integration of the needs and desires of all the major segments involved: its administrators, teachers, supervisors, pupils, parents and community. Curricular innovations involve all these groups, and superintendents are aware of the contributions each group can make to curriculum development.



The goal oriented group indicated during the interviews that objectives of education must change periodically to meet the requirements of changed technologies, changed conditions, and the changes in needs of those involved in the entire school system or served by it. In this area, the participative group or democratic process of leadership is apparently more effective in producing methods and procedures to achieve the agreed-upon objectives which must be developed and adopted in such a way that all those who are involved become motivated to implement the innovations.

Evidence indicates, that, at least in the relationship among superintendents, principals and staff, there is an eager desire to participate in planning innovations; but, whether financial resources are available to research and develop innovations and whether the parents and community are willing to accept these programs, at a price, is another question.

#### Interaction Group 3 - Teachers

##### Item (a)

Category: Supportive behavior.

Operating Characteristics: Extent to which superintendents have confidence and trust in teachers' recommendations on budgets.

Operating Processes: (1) No confidence and trust  
 (2) Condescending confidence and trust  
 (3) Substantial, but not complete; wishes to keep control of decisions  
 (4) Complete confidence and trust

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT  
OF SUPERINTENDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES  
IN THEIR INTERACTION WITH PRINCIPALS AND STAFF

TABLE 4-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	0	( 4) 26.67%	( 7) 46.66%	( 4) 26.67%
(b)	0	( 2) 13.33	( 6) 40.00	( 7) 46.67
(c)	0	0 0	( 8) 53.33	( 7) 46.67
(d)	0	( 2) 13.33	( 4) 26.67	( 9) 60.00
(e)	0	0 0	( 5) 33.33	(10) 66.67
TOTAL	0	( 8) 10.67	(30) 40.00	(37) 49.33

TABLE 4-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	0	0	( 6) 60.00%	( 4) 40.00%
(b)	0	0	( 5) 50.00	( 5) 50.00
(c)	0	0	( 3) 30.00	( 7) 70.00
(d)	0	0	( 2) 20.00	( 8) 80.00
(e)	0	0	0 0	(10) 100.00
TOTAL	0	0	(16) 32.00	(34) 68.00

TABLE 4-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	1	2	3	4
(a)	0	( 4) 16.00%	(13) 52.00%	( 8) 32.00%
(b)	0	( 2) 8.00	(11) 44.00	(12) 48.00
(c)	0	0 0	(11) 44.00	(14) 56.00
(d)	0	( 2) 8.00	( 6) 24.00	(17) 68.00
(e)	0	0 0	( 5) 20.00	(20) 80.00
TOTAL	0	( 8) 6.40	(46) 36.80	(71) 56.80

SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND  
SCORES OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES  
OF SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH PRINCIPALS AND STAFF

TABLE 5-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	198	13.20	3.64
(b)	218	14.53	3.91
(c)	234	15.60	4.12
(d)	228	15.20	4.04
(e)	246	16.40	4.28
TOTAL	1124	14.99	3.99

TABLE 5-2

Group "B"

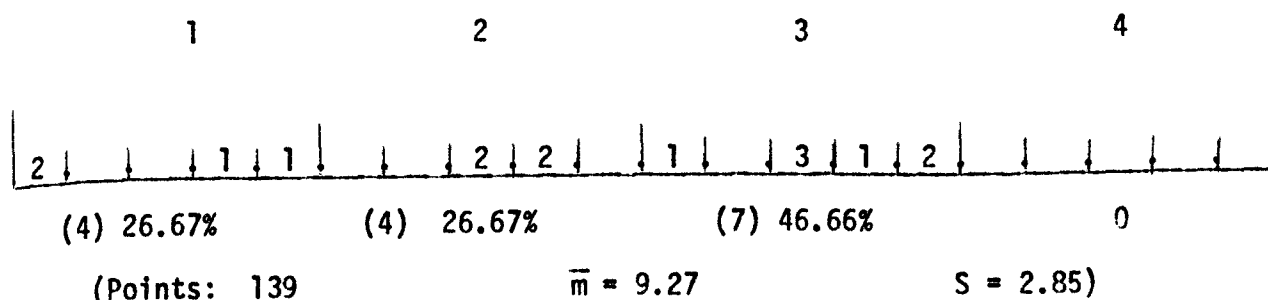
Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	147	14.70	3.94
(b)	157	15.70	4.14
(c)	161	16.10	4.22
(d)	165	16.50	4.30
(e)	174	17.40	4.48
TOTAL	804	16.08	4.22

TABLE 5-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	345	13.80	3.76
(b)	375	15.00	4.00
(c)	395	15.80	4.16
(d)	393	15.72	4.14
(e)	420	16.80	4.36
TOTAL	1928	15.42	4.08

## Group "A" Responses



For the most part, superintendents feel that teachers are more concerned about expending funds for higher salaries, more sick leave, and other employment matters than they are concerned about availability of funds for educational priorities, curriculum, textbooks, extra curricular activities, visual aids, laboratory equipment or special service personnel. More than half of the respondents took the position that teachers have a tendency to place more emphasis on conditions of employment than on educational priorities. But, respondents also indicated that the fiscal and administrative interdependence of conditions of employment and educational policy is such that it is often impossible to decide issues pertaining to one aspect from issues pertaining to another.

More than half of the Group A respondents expressed very little confidence in teachers' ability to make recommendations on budgets. Less than one half of the superintendents have some type of working program, committee or council which involves teachers in budgetary matters. One respondent commented: "Why should I consult teachers on policy and budget matters? This area belongs to the board and myself. I look for feedback, but I do not advocate full teacher participation in policy and budget recommendations."

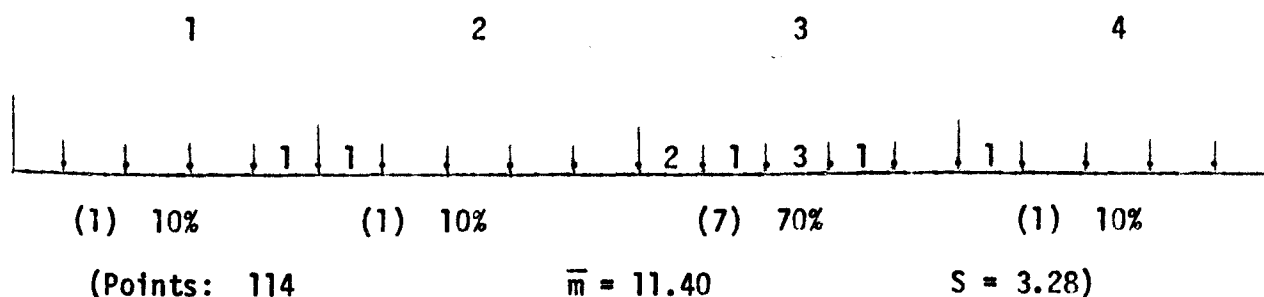
The comment of one of the superintendents serves as a good synthesis of

the opinions expressed by Group A respondents:

One of the most difficult problems with teachers is to get them to focus on the priority of allocating funds to instructional programs and curricular improvements. They do not see the relation between allocation of dollars to proper programs and availability of funds for their own benefit. They do not see the relationship between giving and getting. Teachers could exhibit greater responsibility in this respect.

Other respondents indicated that the participative style of leadership on this issue is thwarted by polarization at the negotiating table, activities of teachers' associations, negotiated contracts, and provisions for a three step grievance procedure. This is apparently the extent of teacher involvement in budget matters for the majority of the superintendents. Less than half of the respondents felt that teachers are fairly reasonable on budget recommendations, and these respondents appear to be consultative in their leadership style, but they felt that teachers' demands for salary increases may override any other consideration for educational needs.

#### Group "B" Respondents



Group B administrators appear to have more confidence in teachers on budget recommendations than do the Group A respondents. Eighty percent of these superintendents stated that teacher involvement on matters of spending generally operates through councils, committees, or teacher associations. One superintendent



table and is apprehensive about giving teachers expanded participation on matters of budgets and spending. The latter group appears to be working on dislodging the polarization by working towards trading off bargaining procedures for committees and councils, whose representation will be shared by teachers, administrators and board members and whose focus will be more on educational programs than on teachers' conditions of employment.

The implication is not that superintendents wish to exclude conditions of employment from the attempted new arrangements. None of the respondents indicated that these matters are to be excluded from this joint representation. On the contrary, most of the superintendents indicated a genuine desire to work out employment problems, including salaries, but within the confines of available funds and after giving priority to budgeted spending for educational needs and programs. All respondents felt that this balance will be difficult to achieve.

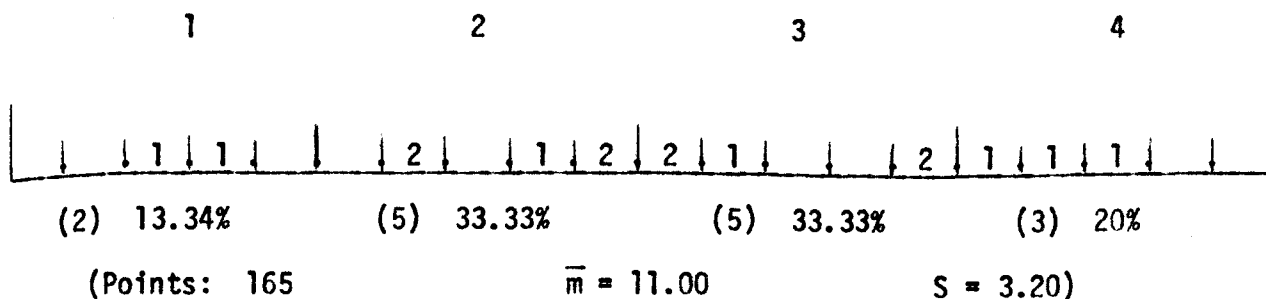
Item (b)

Category: Motivational forces.

Operating Characteristics: Superintendent's evaluation of the amount of responsibility felt by teachers for improving the quality of teaching.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little  
(2) Some  
(3) Substantial  
(4) Real responsibility and motivation to implement techniques.

## Group "A" Responses



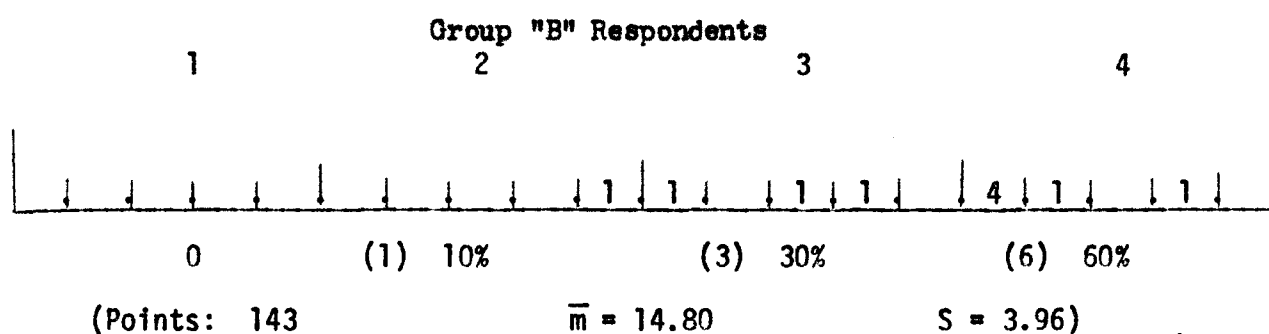
Only twenty percent of the respondents indicated that they evaluate their teachers as having real responsibility and motivation to implement techniques for improving the quality of teaching. These superintendents whose self-perceived leadership process is participative group stated, during the interviews, that they encourage extensive participation by teachers to work together with their principals and supervisors by serving on development committees, attending meetings and writing suggestions to improve the quality of instructional programs and teaching techniques.

Most administrators agreed that teachers should be involved in curriculum improvement, and developing educational innovations, but teachers should not have the right to determine class size or class assignments. They felt that teaching is in the teachers' domain and full participation in curricular activities was encouraged. But, the respondents emphasized that this full involvement must be undertaken with direction from the superintendents' office or the central office.

About half of the respondents felt that teachers should show more responsibility and interest in improving their teaching art through innovative techniques. However, nearly all the respondents felt that such innovations need control and that advisory consultation should be practiced by the administrators, superintendents and principals, to obtain and use the opinions of teachers on



how techniques can be implemented to improve the quality of teaching. The converted mean score indicates that the leadership process utilized by this group on this issue is a low level consultative process bordering on the authoritative benevolent. Greater confidence could be exhibited by superintendents in their teachers' sense of responsibility for improving quality of teaching, but apparently, the new relationship between teachers and superintendents, resulting from ever increasing militancy, has not been completely tested and worked out.



It appears that this group is more democratic in their approach to evoking participation of teachers in developing new techniques geared to improve the quality of teaching. Again, total involvement is encouraged through organizing councils, committess and meetings with representation from teachers, administrators and board members. During one of the interviews the superintendent emphatically stated that "staff-teacher participation is an absolute must" and he saw no reason to raise the question again on this issue or any other issue involving teachers.

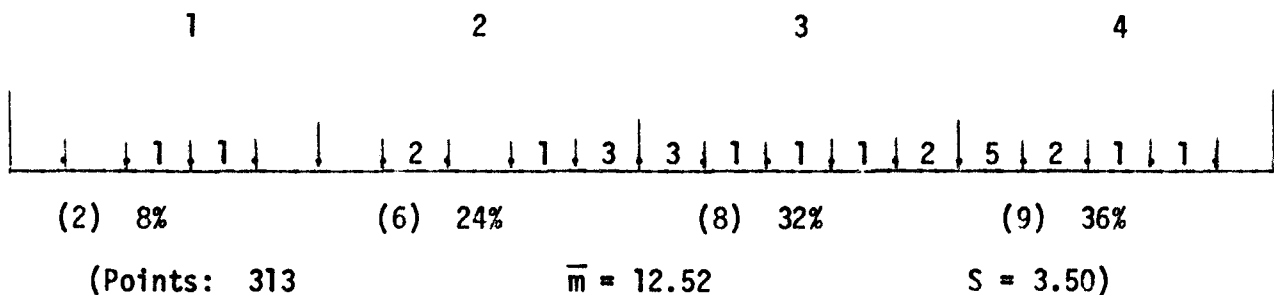
Most of the superintendents indicated that they have little or no face-to-face interaction with teachers on the subject of improving the quality of teaching. They appear to be very concerned about losing control over classroom proceedings. This general attitude of apprehension is expressed in the following

## comment:

Teachers very often become pre-occupied with issues which cause them to lose sight of the real professional role they are entrusted with -- and quality of teaching can suffer. That is why I encourage the PTAC (Parent-Teachers-Administrators Council) involvement. My assistants and I work out the general scheme of things -- and they work out the details with the teachers. Once the programs are finalized, I look at the finished product in written form, change some ideas, question others, and tell them what a fine job they did.

It appears that the goal setters invite representatives from other groups who serve as a buffer and catalyst between themselves and teachers to facilitate implementation of educational programs. Experience shows that involvement of all groups concerned brings about a consensus that "even a teacher group cannot rock."

## Combined Responses



At first glance it would appear that the responses to this item are difficult to reconcile with the apparent lack of confidence superintendents exhibit towards teachers on matters of budget recommendations. The reason for this is that curricular innovations and new techniques for improving the quality of teaching are interdependent. Most innovations require financial resources for implementation. How is it, then, that superintendents feel that teachers have substantial responsibility and motivation for implementing techniques, but have

little confidence in their ability to submit budget recommendations.

The above dichotomy can probably be best explained by rationalizing that superintendents have not lost complete faith in their teachers' abilities and they honestly feel that teachers should be involved in curriculum and teaching improvements. But, the superintendent also feels the pressures of financial stress and, thus, is not in position to give his teachers full rein in making decisions which would infringe on his responsibility of deciding the priorities to which funds will be allocated. Superintendents look to teacher involvement in consultation rather than in decision making. Their recommendations must be weighed against the dollars available to implement new techniques and dollars available to satisfy teachers' demands for increased salaries.

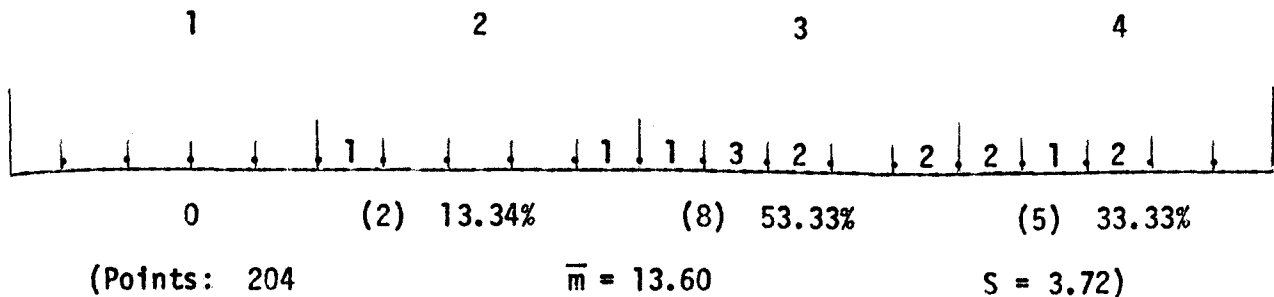
Item (c)

Category: Communication interaction.

Operating Characteristics: Amount of interaction and communication by superintendents aimed at improving relationships between teachers and administrators.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little  
(2) Little  
(3) Quite a bit  
(4) Much

## Group "A" Responses



With the exception of the two respondents who continue to select point values on the benevolent authoritative dimension of the scale, there is indication that superintendents are aware of the need for interaction and communication between themselves and the teacher group. More than half of the respondents mentioned that Advisory Councils, Teacher-Administrator Councils and Teacher Associations are main vehicles through which interaction and communication with teachers is diffused through their representatives attending council, committee and association meetings. Sheer numbers make it difficult to have continuing contact.

## Group "B" Responses

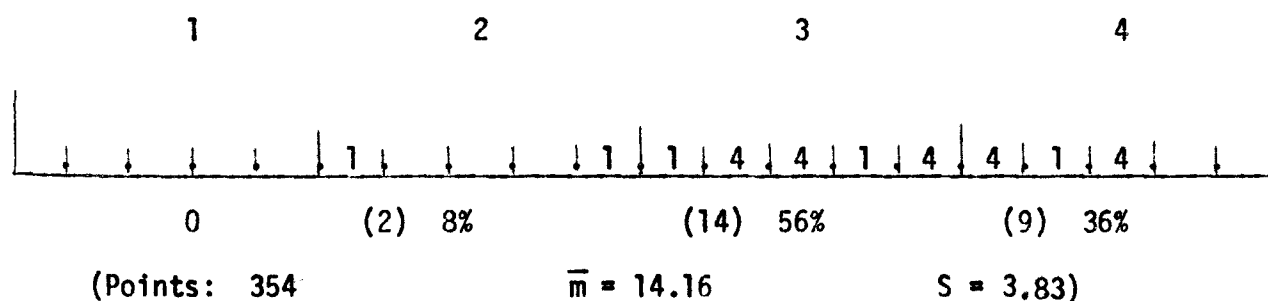


All the respondents expressed a consensus that frequent meetings between principals and teachers tend to maintain a high amount of interaction and communication which in turn fosters good relationships. Most of the

superintendents commented that there has to be a great amount of communication and interaction on policy matters in order to have good relationships between teachers and administrators. However, half of the administrators in this group placed the responsibility of improving relationships between teachers and administrators on building principals.

Nearly all superintendents indicated that it is difficult to have a face-to-face relationship with every teacher in the district because of number. All respondents mentioned a committee, council, association, frequent meetings between principals-staff-teachers, and written memoranda as techniques utilized to improve teacher/administrator relationships. More superintendents in this group than in Group A have Parent-Teacher-Administrator Councils and, from their comments during the interviews, it appears that this is the main vehicle through which good relationships are fostered.

#### Combined Responses



Group B respondents scored on the scale dimension which indicates that their self-perceived leadership style demands more group participation, interaction and communication among members of the school district than that of the leadership style selectors. Both groups of superintendents, however, exhibit an awareness of the need for substantial communication and interaction.

Most superintendents agreed that good communication starts from the superintendent's office. Superintendents feel that conflict must be resolved by open discussion of problems, but there is some indication that discussions concerning policy matters and budgets should end after recommendations are submitted to the superintendent. Perhaps the system is "hung up" on the structure which forces matters of policy and budgets into the superintendents' office and school board chambers where the communication line between teachers and administrators ends.

A few superintendents indicated that the amount of interaction and communication with administrators and teachers is dependent upon who should make the decision and which set of consequences resulting from alternative decisions is more in the public interest. Apparently superintendents feel that their decisions on policies and budgets, and not those of teachers, serve the public interest in a better way.

All respondents gave evidence that in their interaction process to improve relationships with administrators and teachers, oral, written, upward-downward and lateral kinds of communication processes are used. Channels of communication between the superintendent and the teachers appear to be more indirect than direct, and involve other members of the educational system with whom teachers serve on committees, councils, and associations. It appears that in their interpersonal relations with teachers, superintendents encourage participation through interaction and communication in a style which attempts to control teacher behavior, excludes the teacher from problem solving, particularly in the areas of policies and budgets, and concerns itself greatly with evaluating teachers.

Most superintendents indicated that they have a high concern for their

ability to coordinate all the groups with which they interact in their role as chief school administrator. One of the school superintendents, in his late years, stated during the interview: "Communication and motivation are the binding elements of coordination."

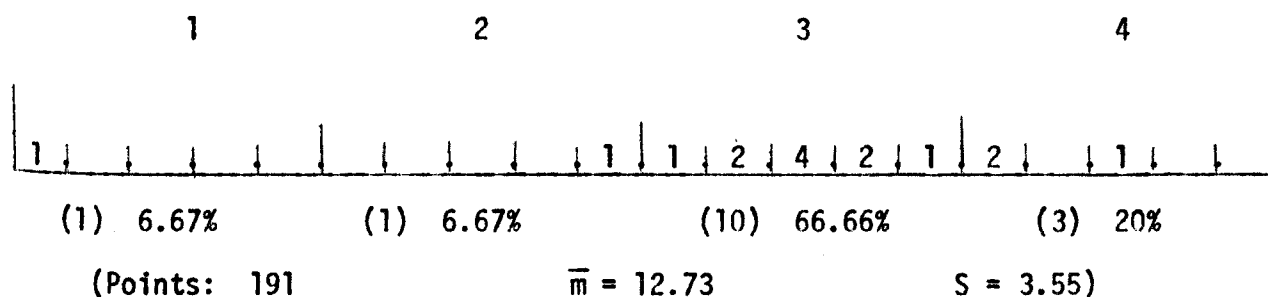
Item (d)

Category: Interaction influence.

Operating Characteristics: Amount and character of interaction with teachers on policy matters.

Operating Processes: (1) Little and always with reservation  
 (2) Little, with some condescension and caution  
 (3) Moderate and often with the least amount of confidence and trust  
 (4) Extensive, friendly and with high degree of confidence and trust.

Group "A" Responses



Most of the respondents appear to agree that teachers should be involved in policy formulation, but the final decision rests with the board and the superintendent. Policy committees with teacher representatives, advisory councils, Teacher-Administrator Councils (TAC), Parent-Teacher-Administrator Councils, are

the main vehicles through which interaction with teachers is conducted in obtaining feedback for policy formulation.

The one respondent who selected the lowest point value on the scale is one of the superintendents who expressed no confidence in teachers' budget recommendations and feels that teachers show no responsibility in devising techniques to improve the quality of instruction. During the interview he commented as follows:

Why should I consult teacher opinion on policy matters? This belongs to the school board and myself. Of course, on occasion I look for feedback which helps to recommend policies to the Board. I do not advocate full teacher participation in policy development. Teachers are employed to behave within the framework of established policies.

This respondent was also reluctant to answer items (b), (c), (d) and (e). He stated that a superintendent in a large district such as his, does not get involved with teachers on matters of curriculum innovations, budget recommendations, improving relationships between himself and teachers, and quality of teaching. "These are matters which are the responsibility of my assistants or the principals -- and not resultant from a direct interaction between superintendent and teachers." This respondent admitted that there are no programs, committees, or councils involving teachers in these matters.

Another superintendent, selecting the highest point value on the fourth dimension of the scale, expressed an attitude in opposition to that of the above quoted respondent:

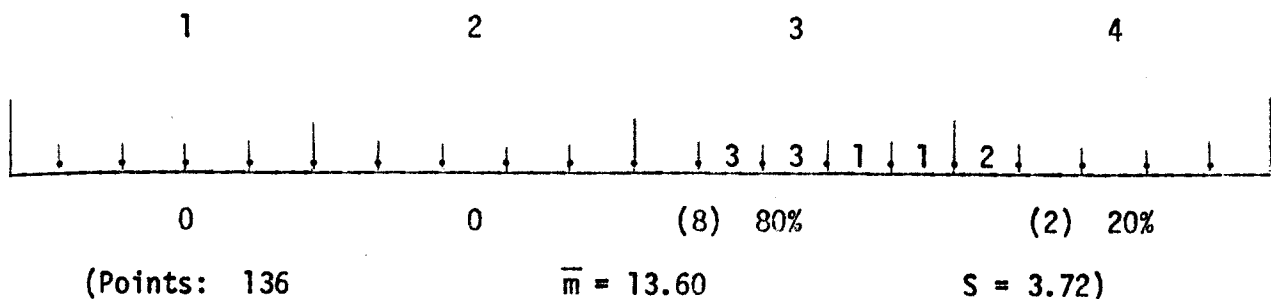
There has to be a great deal of interaction between my office and teachers with regard to policy matters. The interaction is very seldom on a person to person basis. But, I have to know how they feel about certain policy matters and I get this feedback through the Advisory Council, meetings of my principals and teachers, and sometimes from my wife who meets a parent who talked to "Johnny's" teacher. If I do not get feedback, I may have a situation brewing which could require more than a simple statement of policy change to undo a bad situation. In



my many years of experience, many a seed has been planted by a teacher for a constructive policy development.

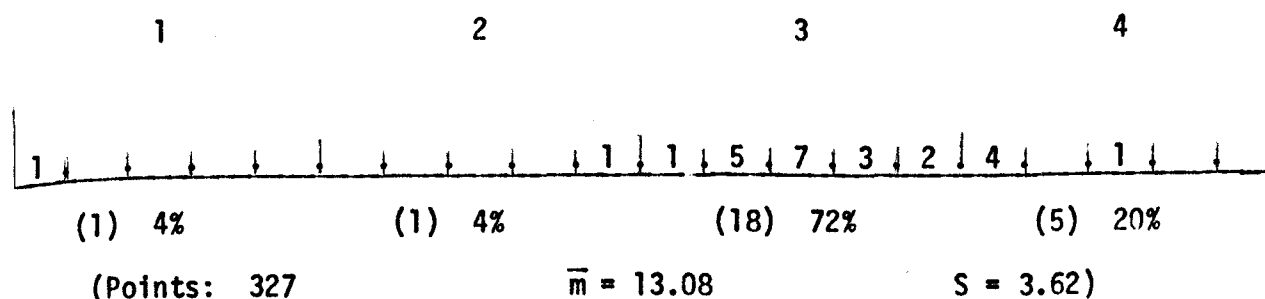
In general, superintendents interact with their teachers, either directly or indirectly, or both, in a moderate way with only some confidence and trust in their recommendations and suggestions on policy matters.

#### Group "B" Responses



Most of the superintendents in this group welcome teachers' suggestions on policy matters and all have one or more formal council or committee groups through which teacher recommendations can be digested for consideration, but most of the respondents indicated that final decisions on policy matters, just as on budgets, are not made with teacher involvement. This group is characterized by a high degree of self-perceived consultative leadership process with a fair amount of interaction with teachers on policy matters, but with reserved confidence and trust.

## Combined Responses



Eight percent of the respondents, two in number from Group A, indicated a self-perceived authoritative leadership process in their interaction with teachers on policy matters. Nearly three fourths take the consultative position and only twenty percent perceive themselves as participative group. The percent of responses for both groups on this dimension was the same.

Reactions to this item indicate that superintendents do not generally feel that teachers should have a voice in final decisions on policy formulation, and that the primary reason for interaction is to seek feedback and content for policy formulation. There are many implications revolving around the teacher's role in the decision making process inherent in policy formulation. Should a teacher have a voice in policy decisions? If not all policies, then which policies? Do the statutes, empowering school boards to formulate policies, break down the relations between teachers and administrators because teachers are not permitted to participate in the policy decision making process? Should the teacher be limited to full participation in the recommendation making process only? In general, most superintendents feel that this is the role of the teacher in policy formulation and the interaction is limited to this privilege only.

Item (a)

Category: Goal setting.

Operating Characteristics: Manner in which superintendents set programs with teachers to achieve curricular innovations.

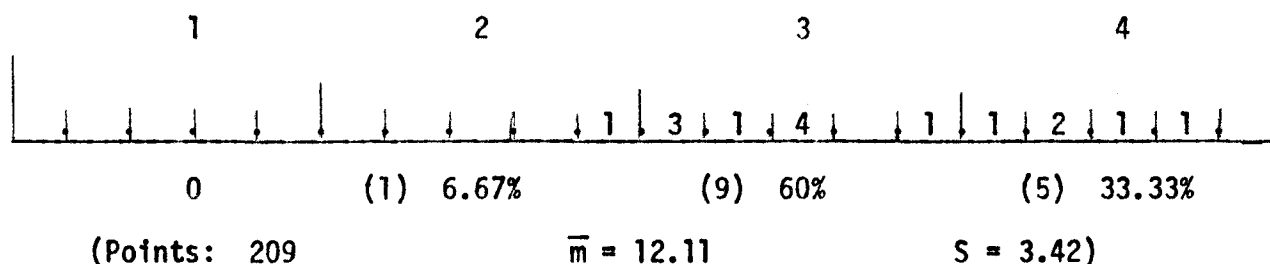
Operating Processes: (1) Bulletin

(2) Bulletin, with opportunity to comment given or not given

(3) Goals and programs are set after discussion of problem and planned action

(4) Goals and programs are established by teacher participation

## Group "A" Responses



Only one respondent indicated that curriculum development programs are the responsibility of his Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum, working jointly with his principals without teacher participation. He identified the teacher's role as one of developing teaching skills to present curriculum content. He also stated that curriculum development programs and curricular innovations should be provided to the teachers, in order to help them increase their skills and understanding within the framework of what the superintendent and his

curriculum specialists devise. This respondent is a superintendent of one of the largest districts in Cook County.

Most of the superintendents felt that teachers should participate in the preparation of guide lines for introducing curricular innovations. A few superintendents indicated that guide lines serve the purpose of helping teachers do a better job of contributing to the attainment of the educational goals ascribed to the public school institution. They also felt that if teachers are not given the opportunity to contribute to developing guidelines for new subject matter, they will not have sufficient motivation to do a good job of teaching the subject, nor to suggest and implement better techniques of teaching.

Nearly all the respondents indicated that committees, consisting of administrators, supervisors, teachers and members of the general public, function to develop guidelines for curricular innovations, but that selected people with ability to write and edit curriculum guides usually take part in the detailed writing of curriculum materials.

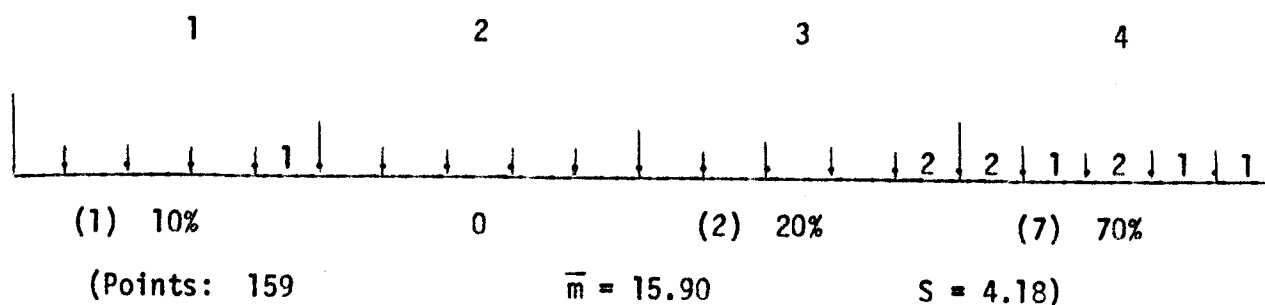
Some superintendents felt that it is difficult to involve a large group of teachers in developing curricular innovations, because teachers do not feel accountable for their teaching effort, and less yet, for the curriculum content of their subject matter. These superintendents felt that teachers use techniques without evaluating results. One superintendent commenting on this problem stated that "maybe its our fault because they do not have adequate and proper tools to evaluate more quantitatively the results of various alternatives. I don't know -- its a problem."

About one third of the superintendents indicated that their teachers are actively involved through committee action, assignments, meetings, and research

in establishing goals and programs. Sex education and changes in social studies were mentioned again as the most recent curricular innovations in most of the school districts administered by these superintendents.

Approximately sixty percent of the respondents invoke the participation of teachers on a consultative basis and, after gleaning all the pertinent ideas and suggestions from teachers' comments, assign the task of developing goals and programs to their curriculum specialists and special committees.

#### Group "B" Respondents



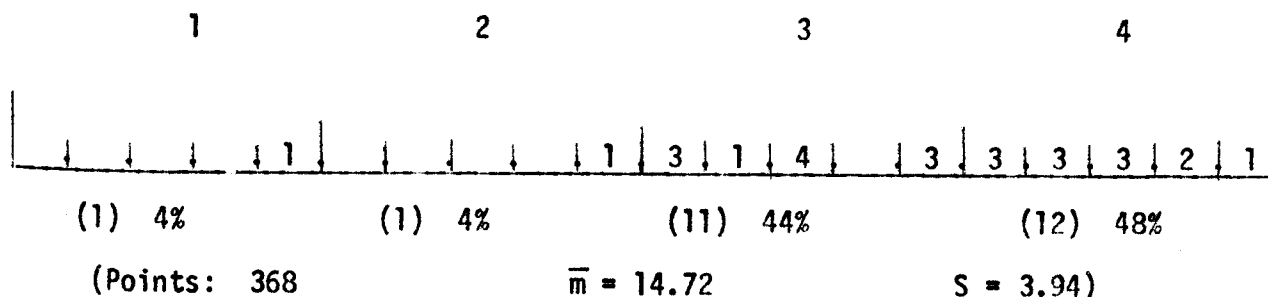
One superintendent from this group selected a point value in the first dimension of the scale identified as authoritative exploitive. This respondent administers a medium size K-8 school district in one of the far Northwest suburban communities. Comments made by this superintendent during the interview indicated that he relies greatly on what neighboring schools do in the area of curriculum changes and innovations, and he just simply implements programs, totally or modified, which his colleagues adopt. He felt that his district has neither the resources nor the manpower to expend on programs of curriculum development. For this reason, bulletins, professional articles, literature obtained from neighboring school districts, and his ideas are the basis for curricular changes and innovations in the respondent's district.

Nine of the ten respondents agreed that goals and programs must be worked out by teacher participation. The methods used by respondents varied in some ways, but nearly all superintendents utilized committees and councils to develop goals and programs. Some entrusted this responsibility to their Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum. An example of this type of approach is contained in the following comment made during an interview by a superintendent of an affluent near Northwest suburban community:

My Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum initiates meetings with building principals to discuss curricular innovations. Building principals subsequently meet with their teachers, either in total or by specific departments. For example, we are working on curricular innovations in the fields of Science, Mathematics, Drug Education Programs, and Sex Education.

Most administrators in this group agreed that teachers should be involved in curricular innovations and curriculum development. They do not indicate that this involvement infringes upon the administrative responsibility of superintendents and principals.

#### Combined Responses



Nearly one half of the respondents feel that teachers should have full involvement and participation in establishing goals and programs arising from curricular innovations. They advocate the Curriculum Council, Advisory Council or special committees to facilitate a program of curriculum development and

educational planning. These committees or councils are utilized to review curriculum plans and guides in order to provide recommendations for action by the superintendent, and when appropriate, the school board.

Some superintendents utilize their building principals to meet with teachers for the purpose of developing guidelines and programs. Council memberships are represented by teachers of all grade levels and major subject areas. Curriculum study committees were mentioned by less than half the respondents. These committees are utilized to study overall problems related to a specific area, establish guidelines for further study, make recommendations for curriculum change, bring together the latest and best teaching practices and procedures, study instructional materials, write curriculum guides or resource units, prepare teaching aids, etc.<sup>23</sup>

The percent of Group B respondents who agreed to full participation and involvement in curriculum innovations and development, including the establishing of goals and procedures, was more than two times greater than the Group A respondents. The goal selectors appear to rely more heavily on greater teacher motivation and participation than the leadership style selectors to develop curriculum programs and implement curricular innovations. Converted scores place the Group A respondents in the middle of the consultative leadership process, probably because they rely more on involving teachers in discussions of problems and planned action, whereas the goal selectors' self-perceived leadership process is scored in the lower end of the participative group dimension, because they probably rely more on teacher participation in establishing curriculum goals and programs.

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<sup>23</sup>William J. Attea, Superintendent of Schools, District 34, Cook County, Illinois. (Glenview Public Schools), Proposed District 34 Cooperative Plan (Copyright 1970), pp. 1-15.

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT  
OF SUPERINTENDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED  
LEADERSHIP PROCESSES IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH TEACHERS

TABLE 6-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	(4)	26.67%	(4)	26.67%	(7)	46.66%	0	0 %
(b)	(2)	13.34	(5)	33.33	(5)	33.33	(3)	20.00
(c)	0	0	(2)	13.34	(8)	53.33	(5)	33.33
(d)	(1)	6.67	(1)	6.67	(10)	66.66	(3)	20.00
(e)	0	0	(1)	6.67	(9)	60.00	(5)	33.33
TOTAL	(7)	9.34	(13)	17.33	(39)	52.00	(16)	21.33

TABLE 6-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	(1)	10.00%	(1)	10.00%	(7)	70.00%	(1)	10.00%
(b)	0	0	(1)	10.00	(3)	30.00	(6)	60.00
(c)	0	0	0	0	(6)	60.00	(4)	40.00
(d)	0	0	0	0	(8)	80.00	(2)	20.00
(e)	(1)	10.00	0	0	(2)	20.00	(7)	70.00
TOTAL	(2)	4.00	(2)	4.00	(26)	52.00	(20)	40.00

TABLE 6-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	(5)	20.00%	(5)	20.00%	(14)	56.00%	(1)	4.00%
(b)	(2)	8.00	(6)	24.00	(8)	32.00	(9)	36.00
(c)	0	0	(2)	8.00	(14)	56.00	(9)	36.00
(d)	(1)	4.00	(1)	4.00	(18)	72.00	(5)	20.00
(e)	(1)	4.00	(1)	4.00	(11)	44.00	(12)	48.00
TOTAL	(9)	7.20	(15)	12.00	(65)	52.00	(36)	28.80



SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND  
SCORES OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP  
PROCESSES OF SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR  
INTERACTION WITH TEACHERS

TABLE 7-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	139	9.27	2.85
(b)	165	11.00	3.20
(c)	204	13.60	3.72
(d)	191	12.73	3.55
(e)	209	13.93	3.79
TOTAL	908	12.11	3.42

TABLE 7-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	114	11.40	3.28
(b)	148	14.80	3.96
(c)	150	15.00	4.00
(d)	136	13.60	3.72
(e)	159	15.90	4.18
TOTAL	707	14.14	3.83

TABLE 7-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	253	10.12	3.02
(b)	313	12.52	3.50
(c)	354	14.16	3.83
(d)	327	13.08	3.62
(e)	368	14.72	3.94
TOTAL	1615	12.92	3.58

### Interaction Group 4 - Parents

Item (a)

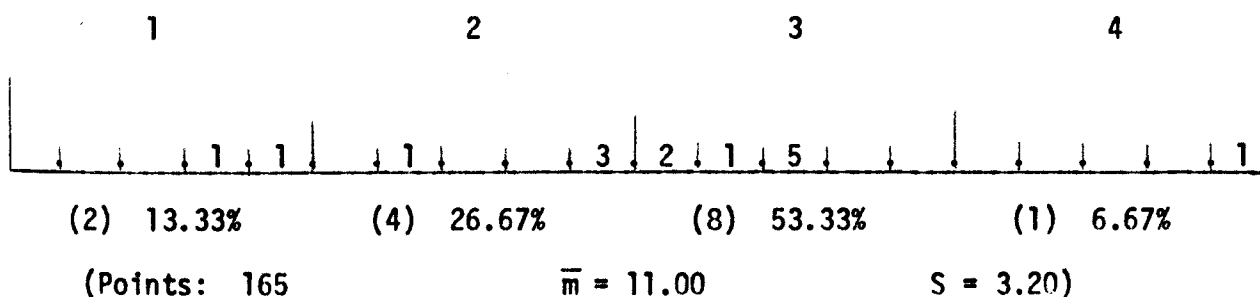
Category: Supportive behavior

Operating Characteristics: Extent of superintendents' confidence and trust in parents' recommendations on how tax money is to be spent.

Operating Processes:

- (1) No confidence and trust
- (2) Condescending confidence and trust
- (3) Substantial, but not complete; wishes to keep control of decisions
- (4) Complete confidence and trust

### Group "A" Responses



More than half of the respondents indicated that parents, in general, do not relate the cost demands required to satisfy educational needs of their children with the corresponding economic output which they must provide to pay for improving and expanding educational programs and facilities. Respondents felt that school districts are experiencing a tax rebellion. Parents do not know which educational needs must be satisfied and consequently they are not aware of how much money they are willing to spend on education.

Most of the respondents stated that parents set up a limit on spending for education, not on the basis of need, but on the basis of what is left over from their disposable personal income after spending and saving for other short-term and long-term needs. As one superintendent stated: "The interest in spending for education is inversely proportionate to the amount of money remaining in the pocket book after paying all the bills."

Most of the respondents felt that this is one area in which parents, particularly property owners, have an opportunity to negate something for which they must pay. They fight the tax rate and the resultant reduction in educational benefits to their children is simply a bad effect which they tolerate. "There's always the limit -- without sacrifice." Nearly all the respondents agreed that parents, as tax payers, are not willing to face up to the reality of increasing costs because: (1) they do not realize how much they should spend for increasing educational productivity; (2) they are not willing to sacrifice at the expense of reducing spending on luxuries; and (3) they do not understand the relationship between educational needs and developmental growth, and the fact that the cost of providing developmental tasks, through educational programs and facilities, to meet the development growth, is continuously increasing.

More than half of the respondents admitted that at least one referendum or bond issue was voted down in the last two years. All respondents indicated that their school boards' efforts to increase educational and building tax rates have met with various degrees of resistance. It is becoming more difficult to pass referendums on construction bond issues. This pattern is very similar to the one experienced by school districts on a national level. Seventy percent of

school bond issues have been voted down by local taxpayers in the last six months, reflecting growing dissatisfaction with and apathy towards public education.<sup>24</sup>

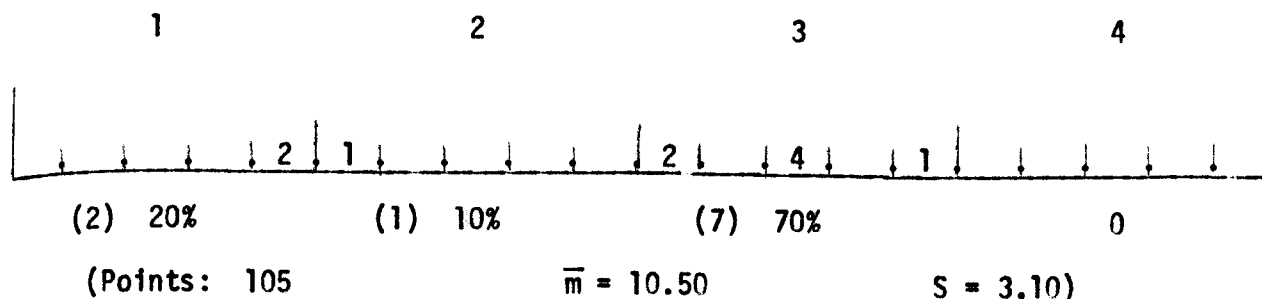
Only a few of the respondents indicated that the apparent lack of confidence in parents' recommendations on how tax money is to be spent for education may be due to the failure of the school to be responsive to its clients because of the sheer size of the educational bureaucracy. Perhaps this is a sign that, more fundamental to the quest by individual parents, there is a need for some viable mechanism whereby the school district can be held accountable for its decisions and actions. The structure of the school does not recognize parental rights of public review of school activities. Apparently the issue of accountability of school personnel for their performance smolders behind much of the bitterness in parent-school conflicts, and "is just beginning to erupt in the suburbs."<sup>25</sup> Since only a few of the respondents gave thought to this problem as being one of the underlying reasons for parents' resistance to tax rate and bond referendums, it appears that the superintendents either have not come to grips with the problem, or do not know what course of action to take in order to resolve it.

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<sup>24</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, "Assignment: Today's Educational Problems," The American School Board Journal, CLVIII (November, 1970), p. 14.

<sup>25</sup> Lee and Joan Firester, "Wanted: Rx for the Equitable Management of Parent-School Conflict," Elementary School Journal, LXX (February, 1970), pp. 239 - 243.

## Group "B" Responses



Although the percent of these respondents who selected a self-perceived leadership process on the first two authoritative dimensions is slightly less than for Group "A", the mean and score of the Group "B" responses on the scale indicate that the attitudes of this group towards parents is less confident than that of the leadership style selectors.

When asked whether the respondents support parents' advisory councils on how tax money should be spent, all respondents answered negatively. All agreed that parents could not arrive at a consensus on how money should be allocated to educational programs. "Some push science, others emphasize mathematics, others want sociology and some want French. So, how would a school board and superintendent proceed with resolving this conflict?"

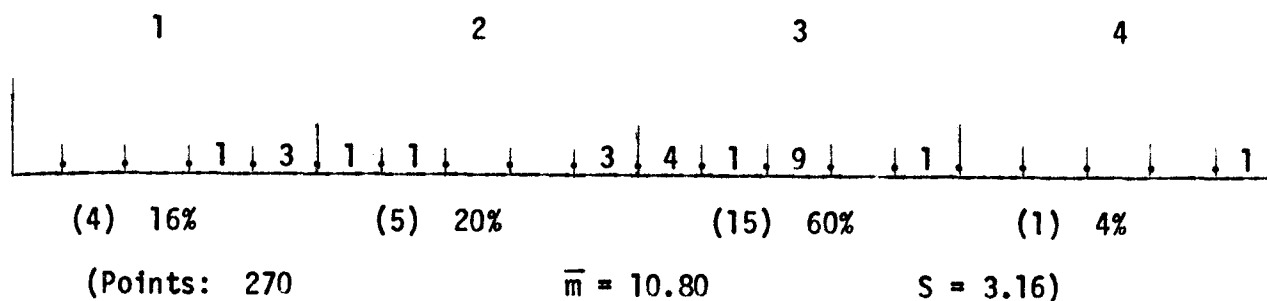
Another respondent's comment reflects the general attitude of superintendents in this group.

Parents are the worst people to ask about how tax money should be spent. They want everything that would make their children comfortable -- tasty lunches, good playgrounds, supervised playgrounds, good bus service, nice classrooms, involvement in social and athletic events, etc. -- but, they do not seem to relate tax money to educational programs. I'll bet that the average parent does not have the faintest idea about how much these programs cost.

About half of the respondents expressed some degree of empathy towards the parents' struggle with the high real estate taxes. Some superintendents

identified themselves with parents' attitudes toward taxes because they themselves own homes and have children of school age. Only one respondent stated in definite language that he respects parents' recommendations on how tax money is to be spent. But, he added that "if they were not burdened with high taxes, parents would be willing to spend additional funds for education." This respondent considered parents' recommendations to be reasonable and wise.

#### Combined Responses



It appears that both groups feel that parents would not know, nor could they agree, to which educational programs tax money should be allocated. Respondents suggest that parents should be partners of the school. Home and family are first in priority of importance as agents of education. "The typical child is awake on an average of fourteen hours per day and the school has the child for only five or six hours of that waking period of time. So, it must be recognized that the home is more important." But, respondents suggest that parents should understand the sequential growth patterns of children at various age and grade levels before they are consulted on how tax money should be spent.

Respondents of both groups expressed very little desire to include parents in decisions involving the allocation of tax money to educational programs, but did suggest involvement on selected issues in a consultative process only.

Item (b)

Category: Motivational Forces.

Operating Characteristics: Amount of responsibility felt by parents for improving quality of teaching.

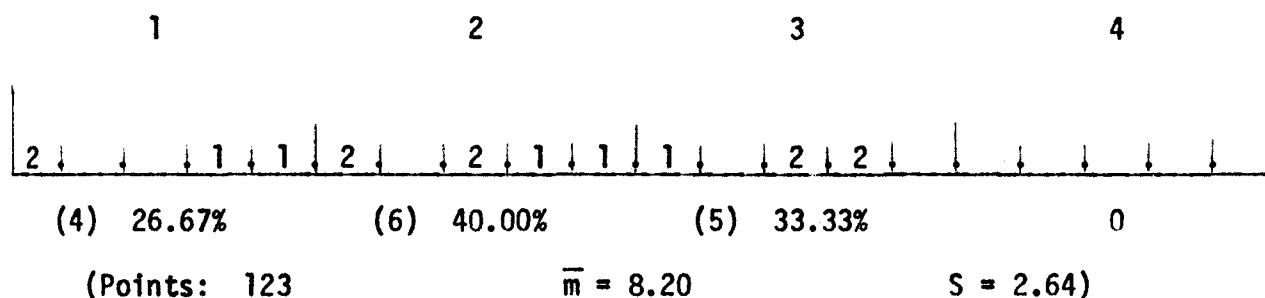
Operating Processes: (1) Very little

(2) Some

(3) Substantial

(4) Real responsibility and motivated to support programs

## Group "A" Responses



Respondents indicate an area of conflict even more severe than on the issue of spending tax money. About two thirds of these superintendents expressed little confidence in parents' feeling of responsibility for improving the quality of teaching. Learning problems appear to be the major issues in this area. The general attitude of the respondents appears to be that parents are not concerned with the quality of teaching as long as all goes well in teacher-pupil relationships.

All respondents felt that opportunities should be provided to inform parents of teaching programs. More than one half of the respondents minimized the effectiveness of Parent Teachers Associations as a vehicle of communication to inform parents of educational programs. They place more emphasis on

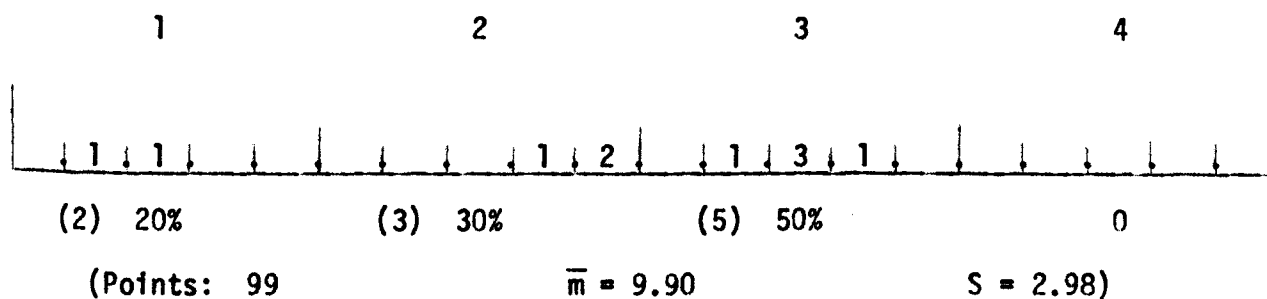
Administrators and Parents Councils, some of which have already been mentioned.

Again, comments such as the following reflect the general tenor of the respondents' attitudes towards parental responsibility and interest in quality of teaching.

If youngsters come home happy; if milk does not get sour; if teacher does not pick on "Johnny," parents do not complain. Generally, they do not question what we are doing to improve teaching so that "Johnny" could learn more.

Another superintendent placed the blame for the apparent lack of parental interest and responsibility in this area on the failure of the school to inform and educate parents so that they could be more discerning and knowledgeable about what constitutes good teaching and good educational programs. The respondents feel that parents show some responsibility in school programs and offerings, but very little responsibility for the quality of teaching. Nearly all respondents indicated that prime responsibility for improving the quality of teaching rests with the school, but parents should share in this responsibility.

#### Group "B" Responses



Although the overall level of confidence for this group is higher than that of Group A respondents, as evidenced by the mean of all point values, there is indication that <sup>only a slightly larger</sup> ~~a smaller~~ percentage of goal selectors than leadership style selectors are willing to share with parents the full responsibility of



evaluating the quality of teaching. Respondents indicated that parents are very cooperative whenever controversial matters related to quality of teaching arise. For example, if parents are critical of teaching and of teachers, this criticism generally occurs as a by-product of some other problem, such as, disciplinary action or a controversial subject, such as, sex education, or an approach to teaching some phase of social studies. But, in general, parents do not seem to be interested in evaluating the quality of teaching in terms of techniques, presentation and methodology.

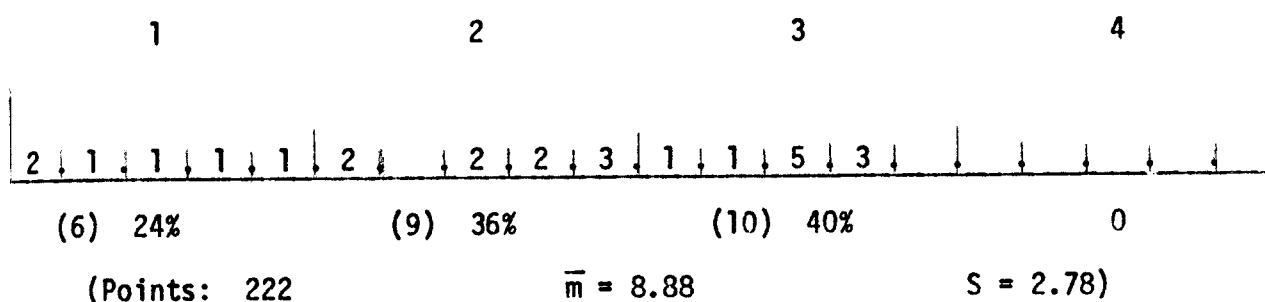
Only one respondent indicated that he felt parents show interest and responsibility in evaluating the quality of teaching in his schools. He stated that many new-comers move into the community served by his school district, specifically for making available to their children the educational opportunities of the school district. The respondent felt that this is indicative of their interest in the quality of teaching. The League of Women Voters show a keen interest in this area.

Group B respondents appear to share somewhat the same attitude on this issue as does Group A, namely, that parents feel some responsibility for the school programs and offerings, but very little responsibility for the quality of teaching. The basic reason for this lack of responsibility, as advanced by the respondents, is that parents are not knowledgeable about what constitutes good teaching, and how it affects the learning process of their children.

The majority of Group B superintendents appeared to indicate a concern over parents' lack of an adequate, basic knowledge of the learning process and teaching skills. They feel that parents are also teachers of their children, and parental efforts to teach and train their children, should be mutually

supportive of the teacher's efforts to educate the child. To upgrade student skills, teacher skills must be upgraded simultaneously. Both require an understanding of the learning process and the teaching process. Teachers and parents must share in the responsibility for understanding both processes. Parents need an appreciation and some knowledge of both processes as a pre-requisite for the greater interest that superintendents would like to see parents show towards quality of teaching.

#### Combined Groups



It appears that superintendents view the responsibility felt by parents for the quality of teaching with only some confidence. Reasons advanced for this lack of show of responsibility were as follows: (1) parents are more concerned with the physical and emotional well-being of their children; (2) parents are not afforded the opportunity to evaluate the quality of teaching; (3) parents are not knowledgeable, and (4) the school does not inform the parents on teaching techniques, methodology, and manner of evaluation.

Perhaps there is a more basic reason for the superintendent's attitude toward the felt responsibility of parents on quality of teaching, namely, that teaching quality is difficult to measure in terms of the maximum benefit that a student should derive from the best teaching method. Secondly, it is difficult

to conclude that one teaching method is better than another because it is difficult to develop a tool which would produce a conclusive evaluative measurement of the effects on pupil behavior of any given teaching method.

Two significant trends, however, appear to be related to this attitude exhibited by superintendents and, if ignored, can cause a collision course.

On the one hand, parents refuse to accept the unchecked authority of the school. On the other hand, teachers are demanding and gaining increased immunity from review of their actions by parents and administrators. In their desire for autonomy, teachers have largely ignored any serious concern for parents', responsibility or parental rights. Unless there is strong evidence of gross violation of rules, parents have no recourse over any action the teacher or the school may take (whether erroneous or not) which they view as an impediment to the right of their child to succeed. Parents who exercise their theoretical right to air their grievances or question educators' decisions learn to consider the possible consequences for their child.<sup>26</sup>

Both groups of respondents appear to be reluctant to include parents in the decision making process and to share with them viewpoints and information on what constitutes a good quality of teaching. For this reason, more than half of the respondents exercise an authoritative leadership process and the remainder involve the parents only in a consultative process on selected issues only.

#### Item (c)

Category: Communication Interaction

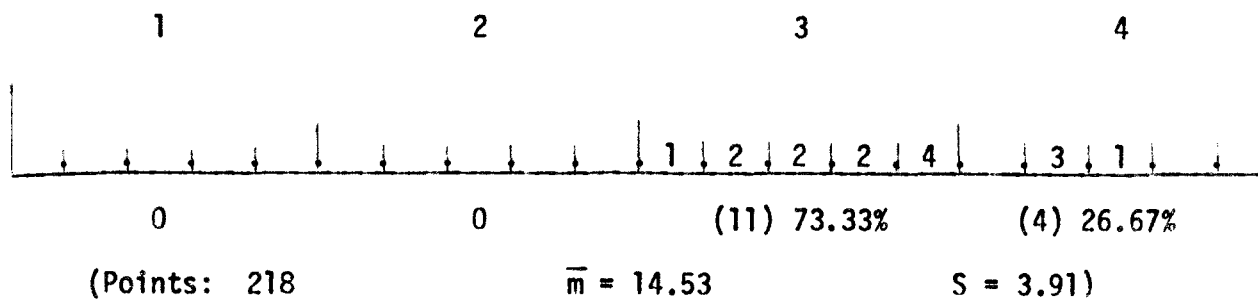
Operating Characteristics: Amount of interaction and communication aimed at gaining parents' understanding of school problems and progress.

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<sup>26</sup>Lee and Joan Firester, "Wanted: Rx for the Equitable Management of Parent School Conflict," p. 241.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little  
 (2) Little  
 (3) Quite a bit  
 (4) Much

# Group "A" Responses



Respondents indicate that, in spite of the many problems facing the schools, their communication and interaction on problems is extensive. During the interviews the superintendents indicated that the major problem is the growing enrollment which has burst past the capacity of available classrooms and funds for additional facilities are needed. Growing population has caused severe overcrowding and requires immediate step-ups in building capacity. Present school income is not sufficient to pay for the cost of education. For example, one respondent stated that the starting salary for a teacher with a B.A. degree and no experience has risen from \$5,200 to \$7,040 within the last three years. Local effort supplies 63 percent of educational fund income, while state aid contributes 32 percent. There is no immediate prospect in sight for obtaining greater state aid to alleviate the tax payer's burden.

Information gathered during the interviews indicates that the channels of communication on problems and progress of schools are primarily interaction

groups, committees and councils, and publications. All respondents indicated that their school district employs a combination of any of the following: Administrators Councils, newspaper media, printed material, public relations activity, Publicitors (a position title used in lieu of Public Relations Manager or Director of Public Relations) and PTA's. Most of the respondents appeared to be concerned about the need to improve the image of public education. Titles of some of the publications obtained from the respondents during the interviews are: Chalkboard, edited and published quarterly by a Publicitor; Can We Continue Good Schools in Nabruhus?;<sup>27</sup> Fair Chance for Children; Superintendent's Newsletter; The Communicator; Perspective, and others.

A review of the numerous publications collected shows that the following school problems and issues were communicated in printed form to both parents and community.

Drug abuse education  
Learning Resource Centers  
District's TMH children  
Educable handicapped  
Referendums  
Career opportunities  
Developmental classrooms  
Methodology and materials  
School insurance  
Sports activities

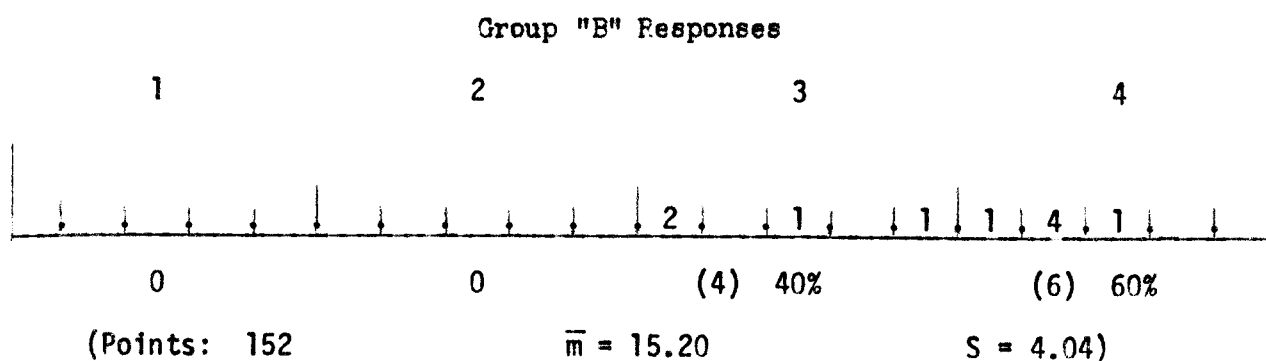
Special education programs  
Building and remodeling costs  
Progress report  
Trouble with the education fund  
Learning inquiry lab  
Self-directed children  
Creative arts  
Genetics  
Summer library program

Most respondents felt that parents do not have a clear understanding of school problems and progress, but indicated that they are exerting great effort

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<sup>27</sup> For purposes of this dissertation the identity of the community served by the respondent's school district has been withheld.

to interact and communicate with parents to inform them of problems and new programs. The main emphasis was placed on financial problems. Nearly all superintendents advocated good public relations, but less than half showed any enthusiasm in utilizing teachers as the channels through which public relations programs are to be implemented. The majority prefer to use channels other than teachers in their indirect interaction process with parents.

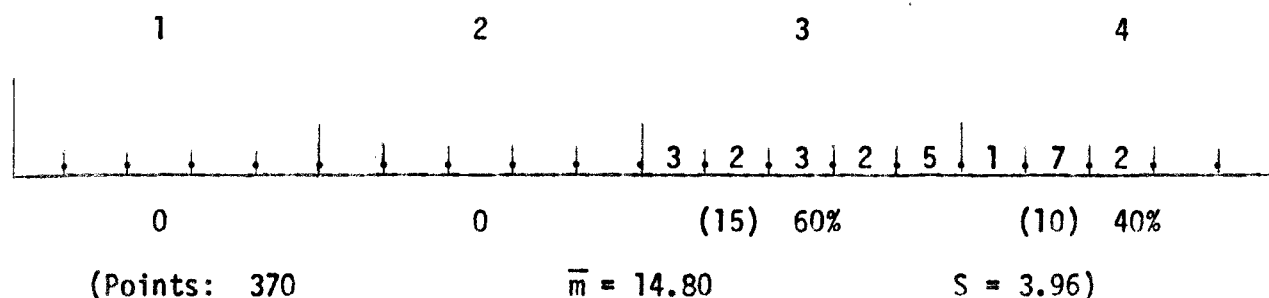


Indirect and direct interaction and communication processes are utilized by this group of respondents of which more than one half encourage full parent participation in support of solutions to some problems. There appears to be very little interaction and communication between superintendents and parents on issues of policy, budgets and teaching. Most of the emphasis is placed on funding and solicits support from parents for funding educational programs including additional building facilities.

Some of the communication channels utilized by these respondents are as follows: open board meetings, question and answer sessions at PTA meetings, weekly staff bulletin, advisory councils with parent representatives, leaflets and pamphlets. Respondents believe that the education of children should be socially relevant. They indicated that such things as the concepts of

community, of social consensus, of social conflict and crisis are problems and what more relevant way could there be to transmit these problems than through communication and interaction with "home base," the parents, to make them aware of the environment to which their children are exposed? That is why their self-perceived leadership style with parents is democratic -- not politically, but socially democratic.<sup>28</sup>

#### Combined Responses



There is a great deal of communication and interaction between superintendents and parents aimed at getting parents' understanding of school problems and progress. However, respondents indicated that nearly all the communication and interaction is indirect and downward rather than a two-way, direct face-to-face conversation between superintendent and parents.

The interaction-communication process is geared toward gaining support from parents, primarily on matters of finances, rather than joint involvement

<sup>28</sup>Joe R. Burnett, "Changing the Social Order: The Role of Schooling," Educational Theory, XIX (Fall, 1969), p. 335.

of parents to establish educational goals and programs. To gain support, superintendents feel that channels of communication must be left open so that parents can learn about and appreciate the values of these funded programs designed to satisfy the needs of their children.

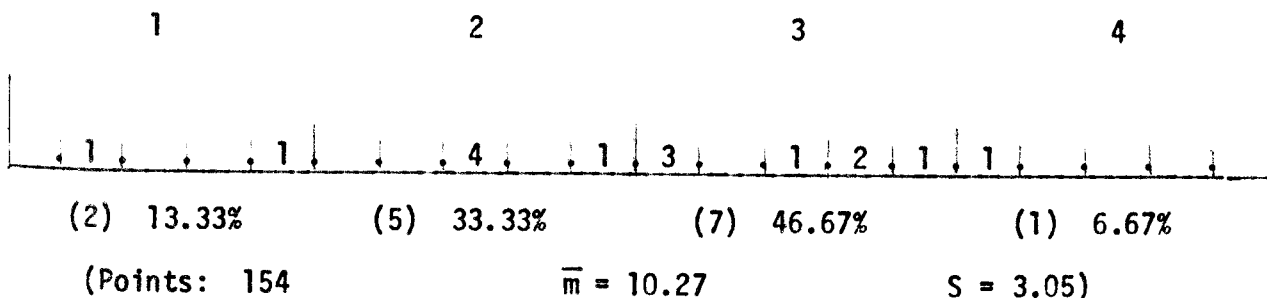
Item (d)

Category: Interaction influence

Operating Characteristic: Amount and character of interaction with parents on matters of school discipline.

Operating Processes: (1) Little and always with reservation  
 (2) Little with some condescension and caution  
 (3) Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence and trust  
 (4) Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence and trust

Group "A" Responses



Nearly all respondents mentioned disciplinary problems of classroom disturbance, dress, hair style, protest action resulting from dismissal of a teacher, drugs, narcotics, vandalism, insubordinate behavior of student,



truancy, fighting, disrespect, smoking on school premises, writing on walls, and vulgar language. All superintendents in this group exhibited a concern over making appropriate educational decisions and taking proper disciplinary action when problems arise.

Less than half of the respondents stated explicitly that they avoid all personal interaction with parents on disciplinary problems, if at all possible. All respondents indicated that "teachers have full authority over pupils in carrying out their function of education, and this authority is supreme." These superintendents feel they are legally vulnerable on matters of discipline. This portion of Group A respondents indicated that they rarely use dismissal or suspension as a form of disciplinary action.

More than half of the respondents indicated that on matters of discipline, full cooperation from parents is solicited and their involvement with parents ranges from moderate to extensive, depending on the gravity of the matter, the nature of the student, the personalities of the teacher, principal and parents.

Most respondents indicated that their teachers are expected to take care of their own disciplinary problems. If the teacher cannot control them, the principals are expected to enter into the picture. Superintendents step in when the matter gets out of control or requires attention of agencies outside the school jurisdiction.

In general the attitude of the respondents towards problems of discipline, in their relationship with parents, is one of caution with parents and respect for the teacher's position of in loco parentis, which encharges the teacher with the discretion of a licensed professional to exercise reasonable care of the pupil in the place of a parent. They recognize that the parent also has a right

under the law, but that some parents attempt to draw a fine line between the areas where the superintendent's rights end and their rights begin.

Some respondents indicated that there is no policy on wearing apparel, and most of the respondents stated that a code of standards on matters of dress was established with full participation and involvement of parents. The attitude of most superintendents on codes of standards for matters such as dress is reflected in the comment made by one of the respondents: "After all, the Supreme Court has decided this for us, so let the parents come to their own decisions. We can't enforce all the standards, but we have the support of the majority wish."

The philosophy of the district's education plays a role in pupil discipline and parents have a part in shaping policies on discipline. If discipline in the schools is interpreted to include maintenance of order and the enforcement of regulations, then the school and parents should share in mutual disciplinary responsibilities, in one form or another. Parents should share in this responsibility because they have a prior responsibility for and right to their children. On the other hand, the school must be conscious of its responsibilities to all members in attendance, whether attendance is in the classroom or on the school premises in general.

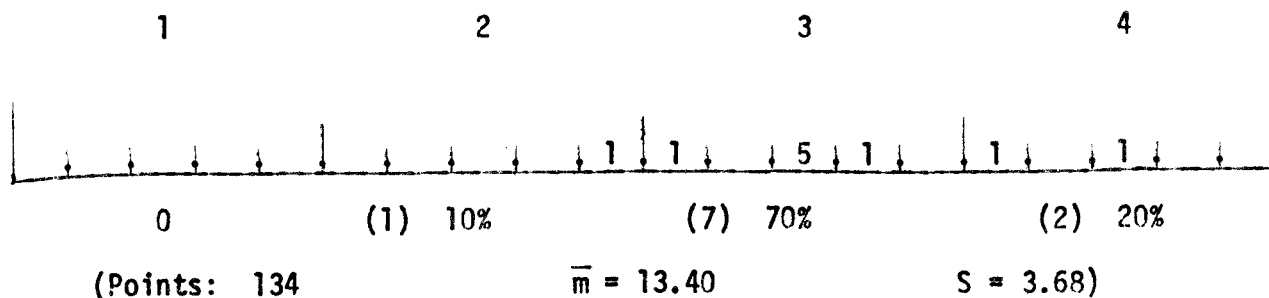
There are times when action is necessary to preserve the morale of the group. But, the conditions under which and the manner in which disciplinary action is to be dispensed will also depend on the school district's philosophy of education which should contain a broad statement pointing to the intent and purpose of discipline. For example, disciplinary action should not be administered as a method of repressing the pupil for the sake of repression.

Discipline must have some affirmative purpose, namely, to change the behavior of the child; to arouse his interest; to use rational compulsion only when necessary; to respect the personalities of pupils; to guide and stimulate pupils to better performance; to help pupils develop by their own efforts.

Discipline does not necessarily imply punishment. Mental discipline implies practical thinking and problem solving; moral discipline may imply the respect of a pupil for other persons. The principles of a philosophy of education relative to discipline can be stated in terms of objectives. Not all programs geared to attain these objectives will be received by pupils with a feeling which is devoid of some sense of punishment and some tasks assigned to students may be viewed as punitive from the child's way of thinking. Most of the respondents indicated that a cooperative effort on the part of the school and the parents should be exerted to mold proper attitudes in the child so that these negative feelings can be avoided.

When discipline means dispensing punishment, many Group A respondents indicated that such action should be taken within the framework of the district's philosophy of education. The philosophy should focus on the well-being of the pupil and the exercise of mature judgement to make appropriate educational decisions when disciplinary problems arise. Parents should have a part in shaping policies on discipline for reasons given above. Those who participate in shaping these policies should be guided by the objectives contained in the district's philosophy of education.

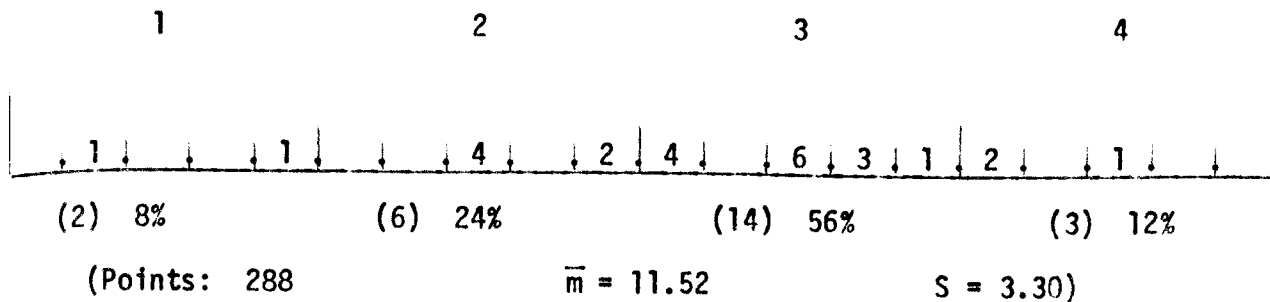
## Group "B" Respondents



Only one respondent, or ten percent of this group, felt that superintendents should deal with parents in a cautious and condescending manner on matters of discipline. The majority indicated that parents are cooperative and their relationship on disciplinary problems is extensive and friendly in an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence.

Generally, however, just as the respondents in Group A indicated, superintendents in this group get involved with parents in serious disciplinary problems only, like expulsion for serious misbehavior, drug problems, and in situations where parents insist on seeing no one else but the superintendent. Much of their interaction is indirect, consisting of coaching principals and staff from the sideline, but when the interaction with parents becomes direct, the respondents appear to be more amenable and approachable by parents than respondents of Group A. In shaping policies on discipline the Group B superintendents indicated a greater amount of interaction communication with parents than did the Group A respondents. However, the interaction communication process was mostly indirect, through councils and committees.

## Combined Responses



Only twelve percent of the combined groups indicate a self-perceived participative group or democratic style of leadership which invites full participation and involvement with parents on setting a code of standard on disciplinary matters. Over one half of the respondents consult with parents and solicit their ideas in formulating a philosophy of education which includes local guidelines for dealing with certain disciplinary problems, such as, wearing apparel, hair style, drug abuse and other infractions ranging from mild insubordination to juvenile delinquency. They feel parents must be involved because responsibilities overlap between home and school.

Item (e)

Category: Goal setting

Operating Characteristic: Manner in which programs are set to achieve curricular innovations.

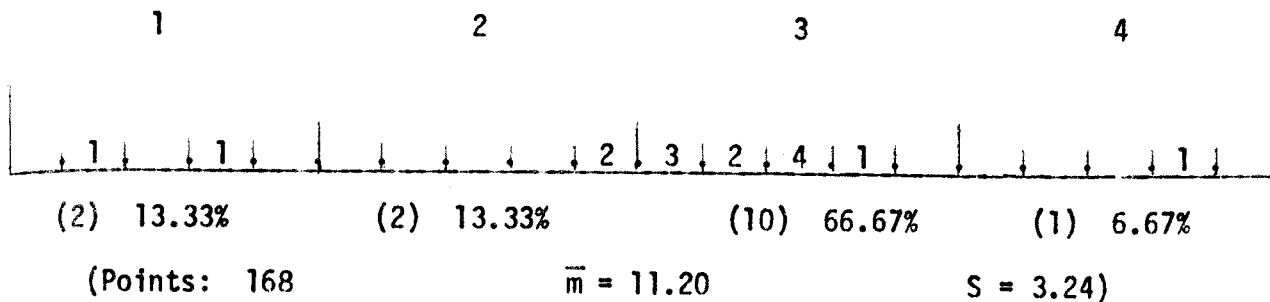
Operating Processes: (1) Announcement made

(2) Announcement made, opportunity to comment may or may not exist

(3) Goals and programs are set after discussion of problem and planned action with parent groups

(4) Goals and programs are established with parent group participation

### Group "A" Respondents



Respondents indicate that parental participation in developing curricular innovations should be solicited to a greater degree than their recommendations on improving the quality of teaching. But, most of the respondents expressed some reservation about the extent to which this should be done. They indicated that, generally, parents set the cue for inviting and soliciting participation. The general attitude of most superintendents on this subject is reflected in the following comment made by one of the respondents:

We can start teaching archeology and parents would remain silent. Change the course in social studies to include treatment or racial equality or ethnic groups -- and interest awakens. Controversial matters stir up interest and polarized opinions. We sort of sense the degree of parental involvement from the issue at hand.

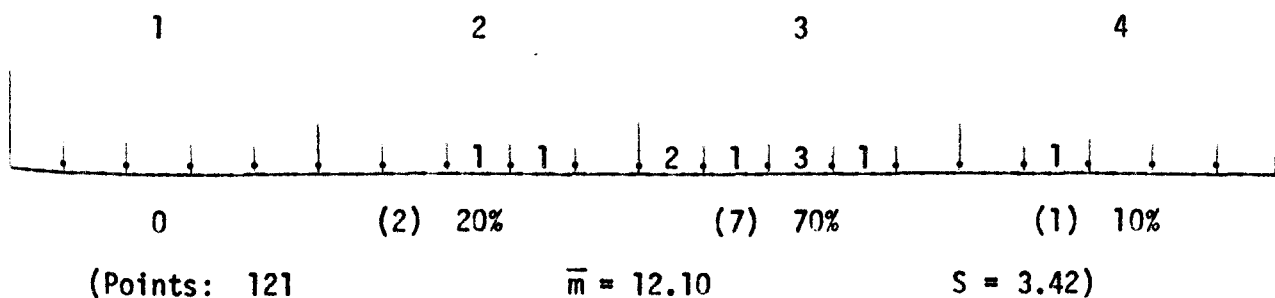
Most of the respondents indicated that curricular innovations are processed through intensive investigation. Nearly all respondents exert an effort to solicit the understanding of parents and invite parents to serve on committees for the express purpose of participating in curriculum development. They solicit ideas, not only from parents, but other persons in the community. For

example, half the respondents mentioned some type of committee, with parent representation, established for developing curriculum content and programs on family living and sex education. Parents were also invited by principals to view the audio-visuals on family life.

Most respondents agreed that parental involvement in establishing goals and programs through discussions and explanation of planned action is vitally necessary in such sensitive areas as sex education and social studies. Perhaps this is characteristic of any suburban community, particularly where affluency is the style of living. Any innovation that touches upon morality and social sensitivity demands parental participation. "Otherwise, problems arise, if we attempt to legislate a program into action without first getting majority parental approval."

Only a small percent of the respondents were reluctant on agreeing to parental participation, either on a discussion level or in actual participation to formulate goals and programs, but condescended to some form of participation when curricular innovations are a result of a parental demand. It appears that this group of respondents would welcome greater participation of parents, but perhaps other forces have a restricting effect on their desire to expand parental involvement and participation in developing curricular programs.

#### Group "B" Responses

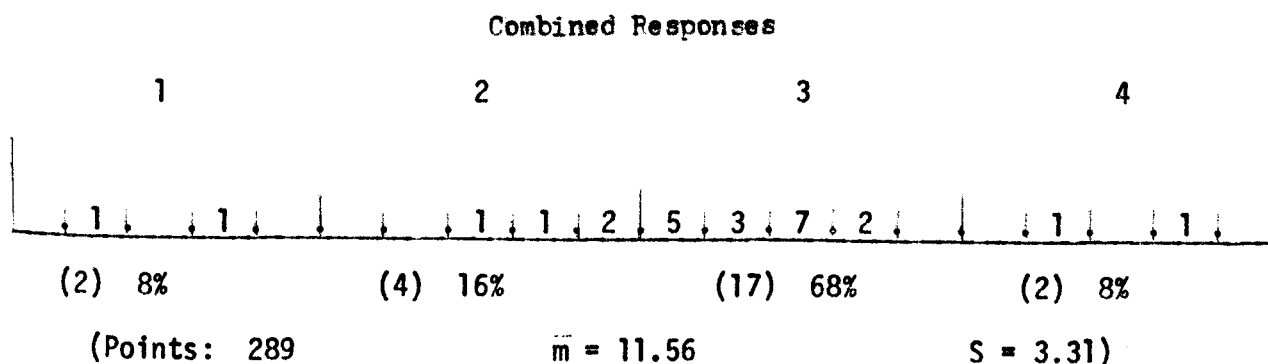


About eight percent more of these respondents than Group A superintendents exhibit a higher degree of expectancy for parents to be involved somehow in developing curricular innovations. This group also indicated that parents exhibit a genuine interest in sex education and social studies programs. With regard to other subjects, respondents indicated that parents show more interest in sports and social activities.

One respondent summarized his thinking on this issue as follows:

People on the North Shore do not understand their role as parents. Even men in the medical professions are somewhat failures in this regard because they do not understand the sequential growth process of children, particularly during the critical years up to age eight. The major physiological, emotional and intellectual developments are quite completed before age eight. Early childhood education is most important and requires parent education to complement the child's education during this critical stage of early child development. Perhaps if they understood this they would be more concerned about goal setting as related to various stages of developmental growth.

The majority of respondents felt that whenever a curricular innovation is planned, all interested parties should be consulted and given the opportunity to express their opinions and ideas -- parents, clergy, the medical profession, business men, community organizations and others.





The attitudes of both groups toward this issue are very similar. For the most part, both groups feel that parents should be involved in curricular innovations because (1) home and school overlap in the child's educational process, (2) parents should play a role in shaping the district's educational philosophy and programs to attain goals and objectives, and (3) parents pay for the education of their children and should be concerned about the services for which they pay.

However, respondents differentiated between degrees of participation. Only eight percent feel that parents should be totally involved in established goals and programs. A little more than two thirds would encourage discussions and an exchange of ideas to arrive at a consensus on direction to be taken. Twenty percent prefer to announce the worked out plans, goals and programs.

It appears that in addition to "managerial" leadership, superintendents must exert "instructional" leadership in order to get at the educational problems in their interaction with parents and other interaction groups. Parents seem to be calling for an open, sensitive school environment to which they can contribute. Superintendents show some reluctance to invite full, enthusiastic participation of parents.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>29</sup>Neil P. Atkins, "What Do They Want?" Educational Leadership, XXVII (February, 1970), pp. 439-441.

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT OF  
SUPERINTENDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES  
IN THEIR INTERACTION WITH PARENTS

TABLE 8-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	( 2)	13.33%	( 4)	26.67	( 8)	53.33%	( 1)	6.67%
(b)	( 4)	26.67	( 6)	40.00	( 5)	33.33	0	0
(c)	0	0	0	0	(11)	73.33	( 4)	26.67
(d)	( 2)	13.33	( 5)	33.33	( 7)	46.67	( 1)	6.67
(e)	( 2)	13.33	( 2)	13.33	(10)	66.67	( 1)	6.67
Total	(10)	13.33	(17)	22.66	(41)	54.66	( 7)	9.35

TABLE 8-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	( 2)	20.00%	( 1)	10.00%	( 7)	70.00%	0	0 %
(b)	( 2)	20.00	( 3)	30.00	( 5)	50.00	0	0
(c)	0	0	0	0	( 4)	40.00	( 6)	60.00
(d)	0	0	( 1)	10.00	( 7)	70.00	( 2)	20.00
(e)	0	0	( 2)	20.00	( 7)	70.00	( 1)	10.00
Total	( 4)	8.00	( 7)	14.00	(30)	60.00	( 9)	18.00

TABLE 8-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	1		2		3		4	
(a)	( 4)	16.00	( 5)	20.00%	(15)	60.00%	( 1)	4.00%
(b)	( 6)	24.00	( 9)	36.00	(10)	40.00	0	
(c)	0	0	0	0	(15)	60.00	(10)	40.00
(d)	( 2)	8.00	( 6)	24.00	(14)	56.00	( 3)	12.00
(e)	( 2)	8.00	( 4)	16.00	(17)	68.00	( 2)	8.00
Total	(14)	11.20	(24)	19.20	(71)	56.80	(16)	12.80

SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND  
SCORES OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES  
OF SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH PARENTS

TABLE 9-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	165	11.00	3.20
(b)	123	8.20	2.64
(c)	218	14.53	3.91
(d)	154	10.27	3.05
(e)	168	11.20	3.24
Total	828	11.05	3.21

TABLE 9-2

Group "B"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	105	10.50	3.10
(b)	99	9.90	2.98
(c)	152	15.20	4.04
(d)	134	13.40	3.68
(e)	121	12.10	3.42
Total	611	12.22	3.44

TABLE 9-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	270	10.80	3.16
(b)	222	8.88	2.78
(c)	370	14.80	3.96
(d)	288	11.52	3.30
(e)	289	11.56	3.31
Total	1439	11.51	3.30

## Interaction Group 5 - Community

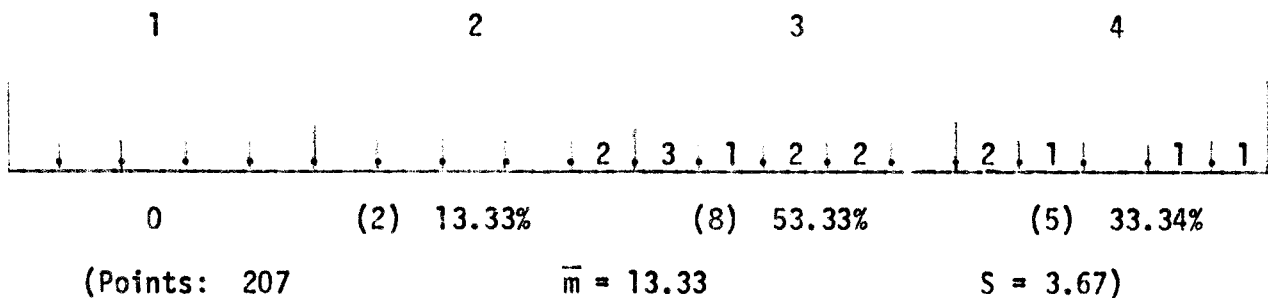
Item (a)

Category: Supportive behavior

Operating Characteristic: Extent to which superintendents have confidence in  
votes cast by community on bond issues.

Operating Processes: (1) No confidence and trust  
(2) Condescending confidence and trust  
(3) Substantial, but not complete  
(4) Complete

## Group "A" Responses

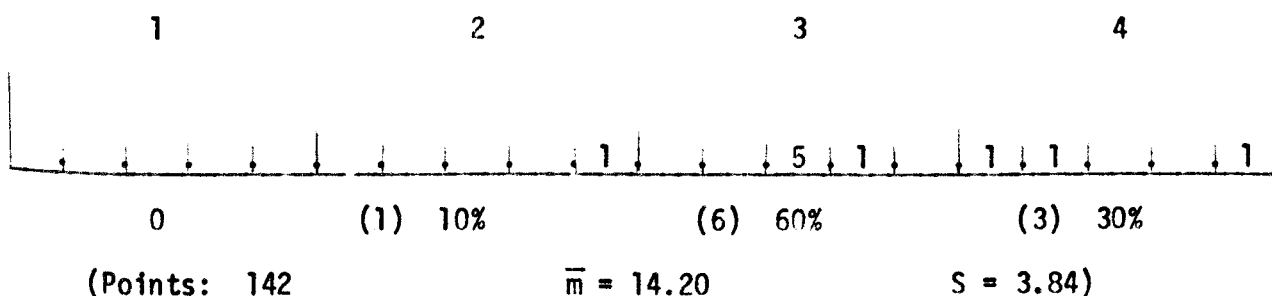


More than half the respondents stated that one of the biggest problems with which they are confronted is getting more community involvement in school matters. All agreed that public relations play an important part in attracting citizens of the community to participate in school planning programs. The respondents felt that their confidence in community action on bond issues is substantial, but could be increased if the community understood the failures to which the school is subjected when a bond referendum does not pass. As one superintendent stated: "I am not sure that the community understands the failures. They become too subjective."

Many of the respondents expressed an empathy towards the community's tax burden and the tax rebellion with hopes of obtaining financial aid from sources other than increased real estate tax rates. One superintendent who exhibited very little confidence in parents, teachers and principals on matters of budgets stated that he had complete confidence in votes cast on bond issues by the community at large.

In general, the majority of the respondents felt that the community will vote for and pass bond referendums, if: (1) they feel that the needs are real; (2) the financial requirements are reasonable and do not cause year-to-year excessive tax rate increases; and (3) they are knowledgeable about the needs for which revenue must be generated. All agreed that because of the excessive tax rates, the community has rebelled against referendums on bond issues and educational tax rate increases. It appears that these superintendents exhibit substantial confidence and trust in the community on bond issues, but would like to see some of the tax pressure removed from the community. They favor generating other sources of revenue, so that the business of education can be conducted in a climate of less conflict over money matters.

#### Group "B" Responses



These respondents felt that the community is highly sensitized to school problems and needs. They take the position that the confidence is there, but the money is not. The general attitude of this group on this issue is reflected in the following comment made by one of the superintendents:

This is not a matter of having confidence in their votes for bond issues. It is more a matter of how much they can afford for these programs. For example, in the last four years we have had four referendums which were defeated. Two involved an increase in the educational rate, and two asked for an increase in the building rates. All four referendums were defeated. This coming December, we will propose a .35¢ tax increase in the educational rate, and the community will have an opportunity to vote on this referendum. If past experience is any indicator, I am not too confident in the community's financial ability to meet this obligation -- but I have high hopes in their understanding of the problem.

All respondents indicated complete satisfaction with their community's attitude toward themselves and their schools. Comments made by some of the respondents to reflect a good school-community relationship are as follows:

Community is terrific!

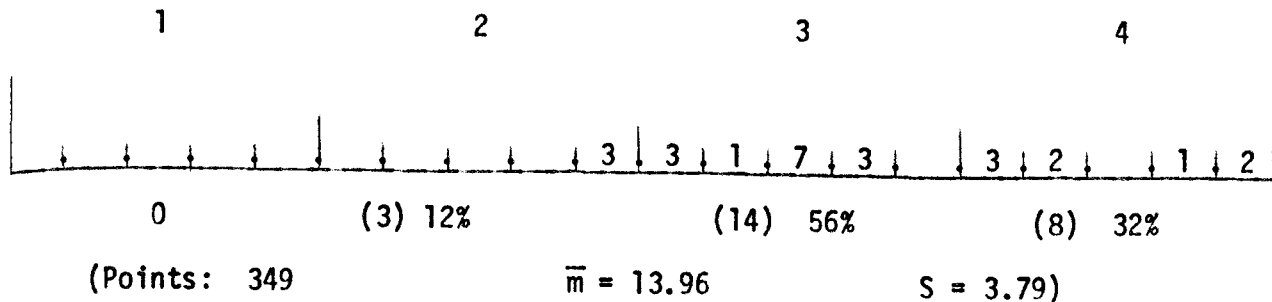
They know where our schools are situated. I emphasize good outside appearance. They take pride in the well kept grounds and appearance of the buildings. They are informed of problems and are concerned.

We have teachers and fathers working with park people to program and supervise athletic activities.

I have a good feeling about this from the community at large. Parental support is not sufficient. Parents are not the only ones who pay taxes. Parents will generally follow total community reaction.

Most respondents have confidence in the community's understanding of the school's financial problems, but feel that the real property tax, which pays for more than half of local school costs, has increased the homeowners local tax burdens to a point where passing of tax rate and bond referendums will continue to meet with resistance.

## Combined Responses



A review of the responses on the scale and the mean of all point values appear to indicate that eighty eight percent of the combined groups of superintendents have substantial confidence in the community's votes on tax rates and bond issues. They appear to be high consultative approaching the participative group dimension in their leadership style on this issue. This reaction may be difficult to accept in view of the fact that bond votes and referendums on increasing the educational tax rate are being defeated.

It appears that the proper way to interpret the responses of the combined groups is to consider them to be empathic reactions of superintendents, as a group, towards the tax burdened homeowners. But, this support in behalf of the homeowner's tax woes does not reflect the true state of the superintendent's feeling of confidence in the community's willingness to make sacrifices in order to satisfy the educational needs of the school district. It would seem that the respondents did not wish to admit their lack of confidence in the community's willingness to make financial sacrifices by giving up some luxuries and allocating the dollars to educational needs. Of course, if the tax burden were to be reduced, the community might be more willing to vote affirmatively on school funds.

The question at this time appears to be one of priorities and, evidently,

the community places a higher priority on spending dollars for luxuries than for schools and educational needs. Respondents of both groups appeared reluctant to admit that the community does not give school financing the highest priority that it should deserve. But, even if they did admit to this, what further action could the superintendents take? The following comment made by one of the Group A respondents reflects the general attitude of superintendents on this issue:

When a school district gets into a bind with the community on financial matters, and there is resistance to school fund referendums, there is not much a superintendent can do, but to continue to tread water and get along as best as he can with whatever funds are available. Engaging in missionary work by encouraging community members to cut back on spending for luxuries, so that more funds could be made available for education and schools, would be sheer professional suicide and the quickest way for a superintendent to become unpopular in the community.

Item (b)

Category: Motivational forces

Operating Characteristic: Amount of responsibility felt by community to improve quality of teaching.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little

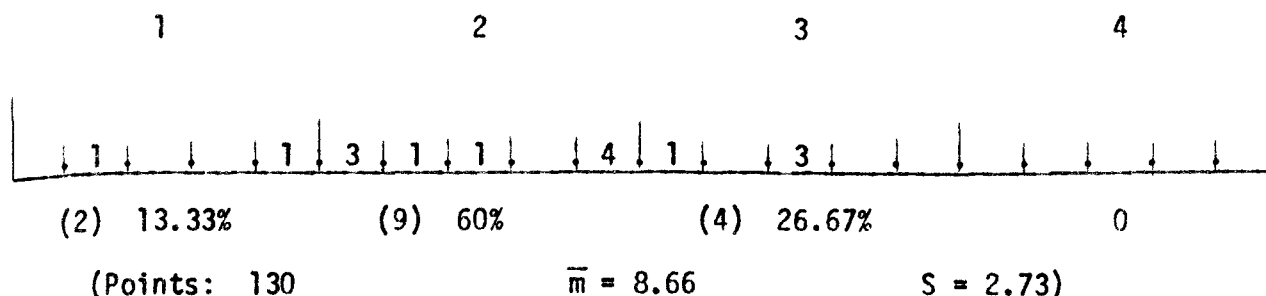
(2) Some

(3) Substantial

(4) Real responsibility and motivated to support programs



## Group "A" Responses



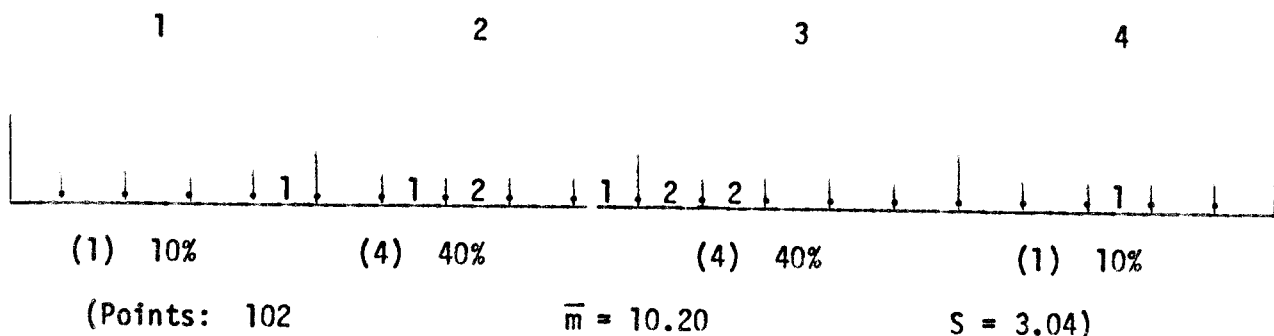
Only a little over one fourth of the respondents indicated substantial confidence in the community's attitude towards the problem of the need for improving the quality of teaching. The majority of the respondents felt that, when it comes to evaluating the quality of teaching, the community takes the schools for granted. The community vaguely expects a good quality of teaching, but does not understand the ingredients of, nor does the community at large show interest in the ingredients of what constitutes good quality teaching.

Most of the respondents felt that the issue of improving the quality of teaching is a matter for the professional educators and the community in general does not have the background, know how, or the interest in participating in the actual development of teaching techniques and methodology. This does not mean, however, that the community should not be involved in the discussions on what programs could be implemented to improve teaching quality.

All respondents mentioned various opportunities to improve instruction. Some of the ones mentioned were: (1) selecting an area of the curriculum and developing a plan for improvement of instruction in that area for a level or phase in a local school; (2) to do the same with one aspect of systematized learning, such as, team teaching; (3) to analyze the teaching-learning act and

hold supervisory conferences with a teacher; (4) to demonstrate in practice how to plan, implement, and evaluate a learning opportunity for a single teacher, a group of teachers, a student and a group of students. Obviously these operational efforts to improve the quality of teaching do not involve the community directly and apparently it is in this context that respondents evaluated the community's feeling of responsibility towards instructional improvement. Consequently the self-perceived style of leadership of this group of respondents is authoritative benevolent.

#### Group "B" Responses

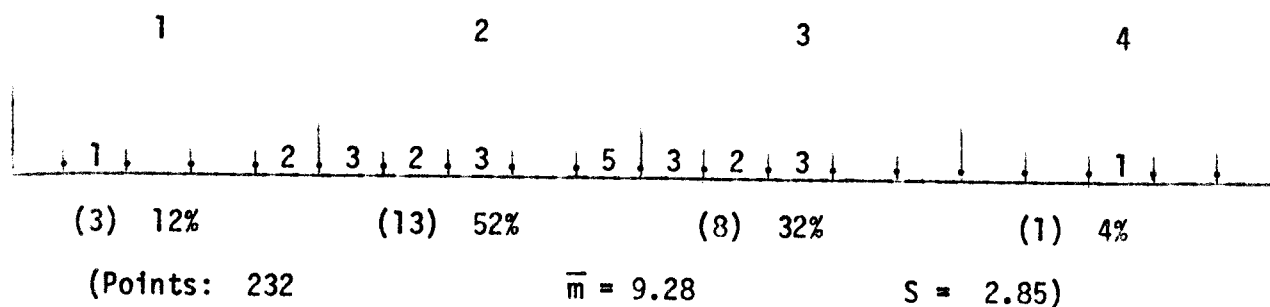


Percentagewise, twice as many respondents in this group as in Group A indicated a great deal of confidence in the community's attitude towards the need for improvement of teaching quality. A little more than half stated that the community shows more interest in school programs and offerings rather than in quality of teaching. Those who indicated little confidence in the community's responsibility on this issue felt that the community, through collected citizenry or community agencies, organizations or groups, "could not evaluate it even if they tried. There are no valid measurements to publicize."

This group of respondents placed a great amount of emphasis on the involvement of such community organizations as Citizens Advisory Committees,

Parents-Teachers-Administrators Councils, PTAC, Youth Commission, Social Agencies, Family Counseling Service, League of Women Voters, Departments of Parks and Recreation, City Library, and Village Board. These are the communication channels through which the school disseminates information on what is being done to improve the quality of teaching.

#### Combined Responses



Less than half the combined group of respondents indicated a great deal of confidence in the community's feeling of responsibility toward improving the quality of teaching. Most of them felt that the community is not knowledgeable in this area and the problem belongs in the domain of the professional educator. However, they felt the community should be involved in developing programs for special content areas, particularly those which extend themselves from the classroom out into real community life situations.

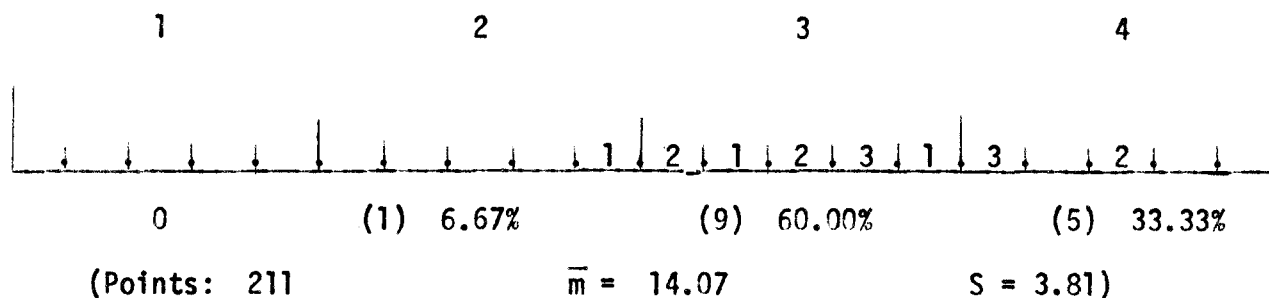
Item (c)

Category: Communication interaction

Operating Characteristic: Amount of interaction and communication aimed at keeping community informed of school problems and progress.

Operating Processes: (1) Very little  
(2) Little  
(3) Quite a bit  
(4) Much

## Group "A" Responses

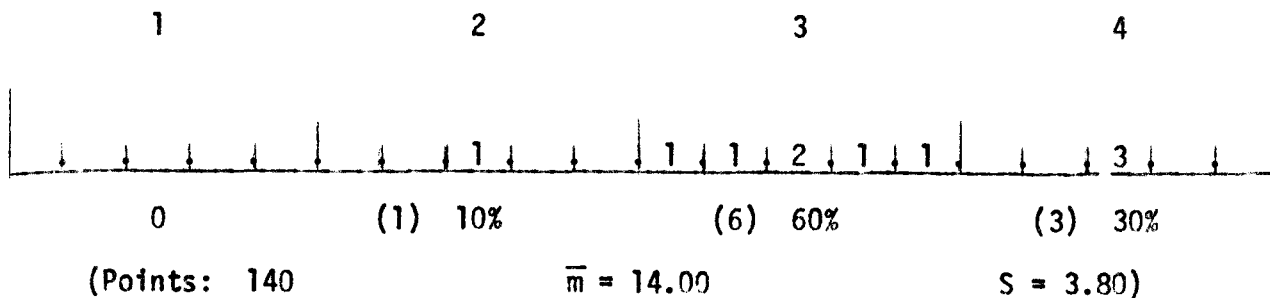


Respondents indicated that a great deal of effort is being expended to interact and communicate with the community on problems and progress of the school district. Most of the interaction and communication operate through the agencies and organizations mentioned previously.

Some superintendents stated that they observe, participate in, and lead parent study groups formed as committees of the Parent-Teachers-Administrators Councils. PTA meetings, service club meetings, parent conferences, classroom observations by parents and other visitors, preparation of material for lay

readers (news releases, newsletters, bulletins, etc) and radio announcements were mentioned as interaction and communication tools to disseminate information into the community on problems and progress of the school.

#### Group "B" Responses



A slightly smaller percent of these respondents than Group A respondents indicated that they exercised a great deal of interaction and communication with the community on matters of school progress and problems. Most of the respondents felt that their communities are highly sensitized to school problems and progress. The League of Women Voters was mentioned by many superintendents as a very effective community group which assists in making the total community become aware of problems and progress. They indicated that the League represents a good cross section of community thinking and serves as an authentic feedback communication channel into the superintendent's office. It is a very capable group and its membership consists of very stable individuals. Its efforts are constructive and help to improve programs.

Two of the respondents commented on the role of the Chamber of Commerce as a communication channel for school problems and progress. Their comments were as follows:

(1) The Chamber is not a constructive group. They criticize, but they are not constructive. They are too business oriented.

(2) I belong to the Chamber of Commerce for political reasons and to solicit support from local business and, at times, one has to overlook certain things in order to maintain favorable relations even though the efforts to maintain these relations do not appear as if they contribute much to sustaining the curriculum and philosophy of the school and school district. I guess the Chamber is O.K.; they are very cooperative and assist when I need assistance.

The reason for this attitude towards the Chamber of Commerce is probably due to its criticism of the self-contained classroom, school management, guidance programs and curriculums.

The self-contained classroom is obsolete. Classroom walls must be knocked down so that students study in terms of their community. Knowledge in action -- "reality" -- is the motivating experience wanted by oncoming generations.

This is education for the seventies.

Fifteen Urban Action Forums, sponsored by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, identified a new concept of partnership between the schools and their community. They thus endorsed an effort and a responsibility on the part of business to: (1) improve school management, and (2) to help modernize curricula, vocational and technical training, guidance processes, and placement of students and the building and equipping of schools for the 21st Century.

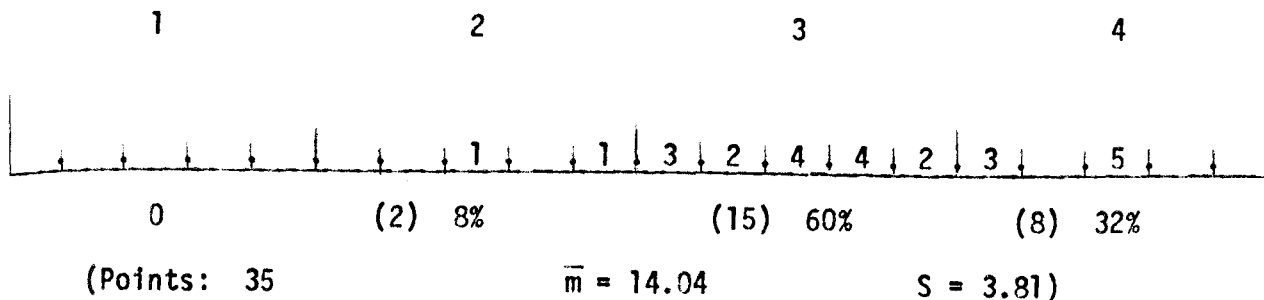
The conclusion was repeatedly reached that Chambers of Commerce could and should be the instigators of communications between business and school leaders that would lead to partnership arrangements.<sup>30</sup>

All respondents mentioned one or more of the community groups utilized by Group A respondents as channels of interaction and communication with the community at large.

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<sup>30</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, "Teaching 'Reality' Is Demand Education Must Meet In the '70's", Washington Report, published by U.S. Chambers of Commerce, VIII, No. 32 (October 27, 1969), p. 7.

## Combined Responses



Over 90 percent of the superintendents feel the need for a great deal of interaction and communication with the community through various community groups, agencies, services and organizations. There appears to be some aversion to an interaction-communication between superintendents and the Chamber of Commerce on school problems and progress.

Item (d)

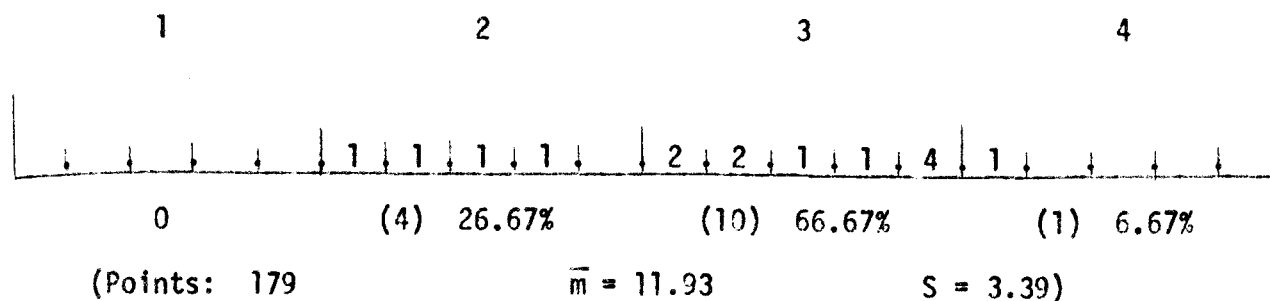
Category: Interaction influence.

Operating Characteristic: Amount and character of interaction with influential people in community.

Operating Processes:

- (1) Little and always with reservation
- (2) Little with some condescension and caution
- (3) Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence and trust
- (4) Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence and trust

## Group "A" Responses



More than half the respondents stated that they have no time to meddle in politics. They indicated that because of pressing problems, most of their time is devoted to matters of the school district. Superintendents of this group hold memberships in the Committee on Drugs, Educational Council, Planning Commission, Chamber of Commerce, American Legion, Citizens Advisory Committee and All Faiths Advisory Committee. Two of the respondents indicated that they make no effort to extend their influence into the influential groups of the community. They appeared to approach influential people with a silent rejection.

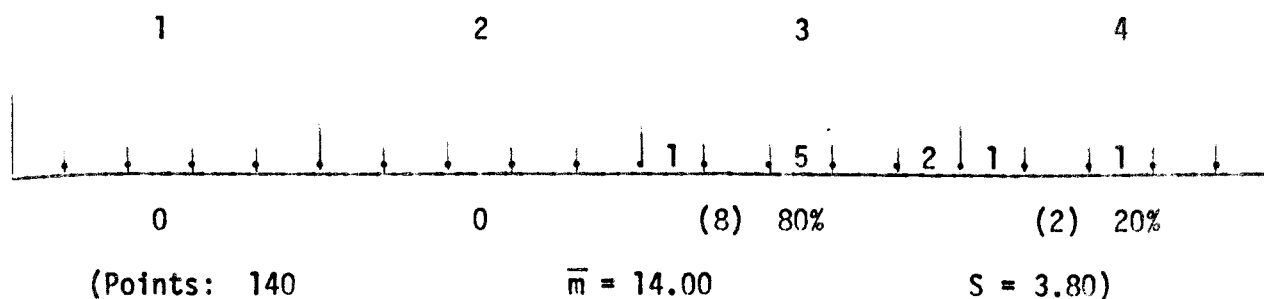
None of the respondents indicated that they experience any serious difficulty in their interpersonal relationships with members of the power structure.

On the whole, respondents seem to elicit cooperation and assistance from influential people when such is needed. However, their personal interaction with such people as the mayor, city manager or council manager, police chief, influential business people and religious leaders in the community appears to be only moderate. Respondents indicated that they have more confidence in civic and social leaders than in business leaders. Their main focus appears to be on the interaction with school board members, teacher groups, administrators



and parent groups.

### Group "B" Responses



Eighty percent of these respondents indicate that they enjoy a moderate amount of personal interaction with influential people and twenty percent said interaction is extensive, friendly and with high degree of confidence and trust. The two respondents selecting point values in the fourth dimension administer school districts in communities belonging to the North Shore locations. Both belong to the Rotary; one is a member of a country club; they have extensive personal contacts with the mayors of their respective communities; they are personal friends of the Chief of Police, board members, executives residing in their community and owners of businesses in their community.

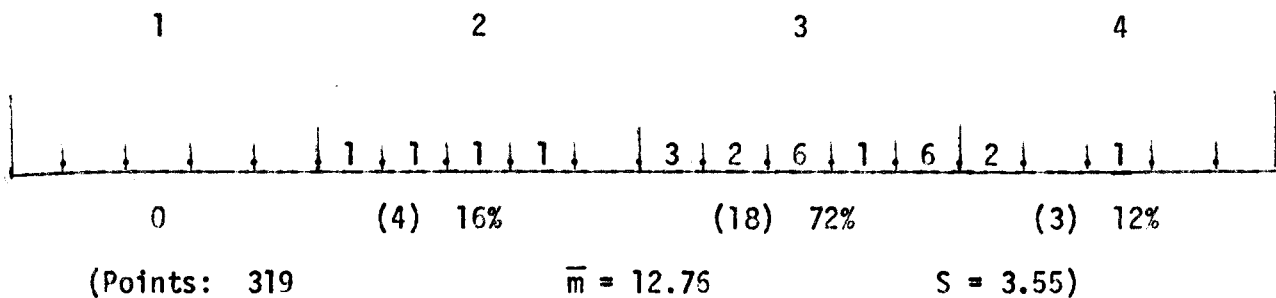
One respondent, selecting a point value in the third dimension of the scale, a superintendent in a far Northwest affluent community, commented:

I know the village manager, many business men, the police officials and other city officials. Each will help whenever I call on him. I like their company and they like mine. We visit with one another, play golf and an occasional game of poker, and go to dinner with our wives.

Another respondent who is superintendent of a school district in a near West affluent suburban community stated:

I do not have much time to spend with too many influential people in the community. But, I do belong to the Rotary Club. I enjoy very little personal interaction with influential people on a social level, and yet, our town is inhabited by many of them. Most of my interaction is with people involved in school business. Since more than ninety percent of our high school graduates proceed to go to college, I place priority on spending my time on the excellence of an elementary school education in preparation of pupils for high school and eventual college education.

#### Combined Responses



Sixteen percent of the total respondents, all leadership style selectors, have little interpersonal interaction with influential people in the community. When they do, it appears that it is from necessity rather than based on personal desire for association. They apparently have condescending trust and confidence in such people on educational matters and view their opinions with caution. Perhaps they may feel that time spent with influential people in the community, particularly from the business world, is not the most productive in terms of educational plans and programs.

The greater majority of respondents feel that some personal interaction with influential people, through membership in clubs and organizations, is a helpful communication vehicle to carry the school's message into the community.

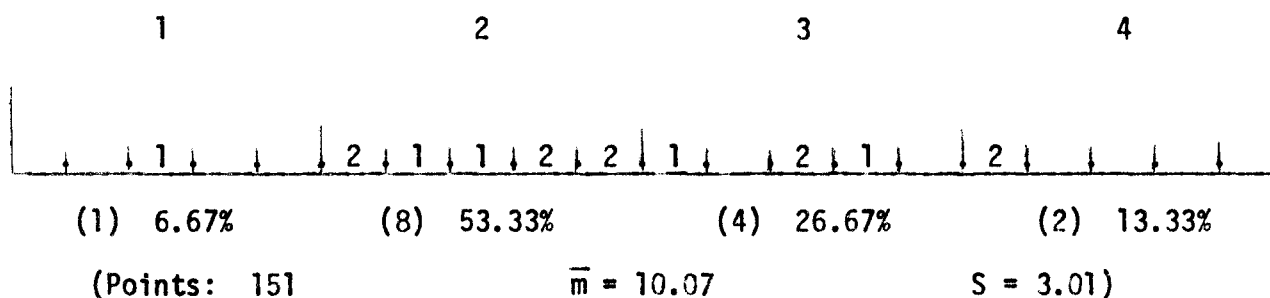
Item (e)

Category: Goal selection.

Operating Characteristic: Manner in which superintendents encourage improvement  
in school-community relations.

Operating Processes: (1) Consult no community agency directly  
(2) Consult selected community agencies directly  
(3) Consult all agencies for discussion of problem  
(4) Consult and establish programs and planned action  
with community agencies

## Group "A" Responses



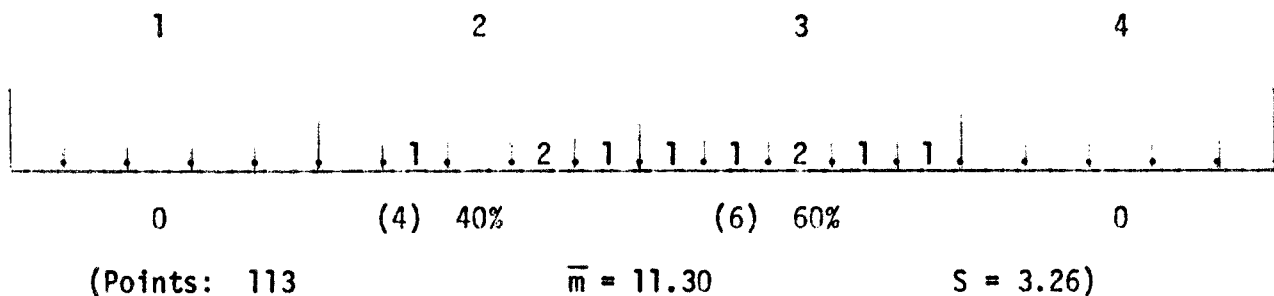
More than half the respondents utilize councils and committees which are closely related to school activities as vehicles to improve school-community relations. These councils and committees and their functions have already been discussed. Only one respondent indicated that he consults no community agency directly. A little more than half the respondents contact selected community agencies, depending on where the immediate problem lies and to what extent the selected agency can be of assistance to help with the solution.

About one fourth of the respondents give all community agencies an

opportunity to discuss the problems and give their opinions and recommendations. Only a small percentage of the respondents solicit the participation of community agencies to establish programs and planned action.

Efforts to improve school-community relations are channelled through such organizations and agencies as: Committee on Youth Problems, Police Department, Boy Scout organization, Ministerial Association, Park Board, Committee on Drug Education, Family Welfare Associations, Health Department, American Legion, Fire Department, County Forest Preserve, and other community agencies. These agencies are contacted primarily for consultation rather than active participation in developing educational programs and planned action.

#### Group "B" Responses

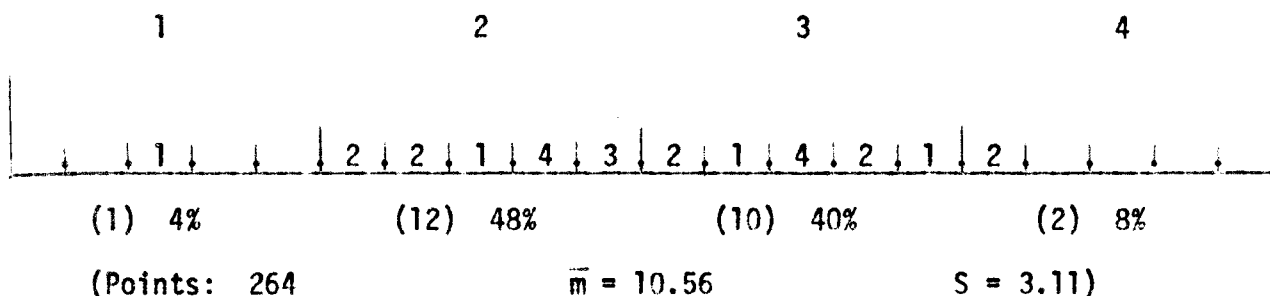


Forty percent of the respondents consult selected community agencies directly and sixty percent consult all agencies for discussion of problems prior to setting goals and planned action. Sex education and social studies modifications were again mentioned as examples of issues on which agencies were contacted. None of the goal selectors proposed full active participation of community agencies in establishing goals and planned action for educational programs. This group of respondents appears to play its expected role of first working out goals and planned action, and then consulting agencies to get

feedback, to modify programs, and to sell a workable school program to the community.

One interesting factor gleaned from the interviews with respondents of this group is that about half of them mentioned that school facilities are available for use by various community groups. One superintendent stated that every organization and agency is represented on the School Council.

#### Combined Responses



The superintendents appear to be divided on how community agencies should be utilized in setting goals and programs and planning action. Slightly more than fifty percent perceive themselves as authoritative in their dealings with community agencies. Less than half appear to take the consultative role and only eight percent show any indication of inviting community agencies to full participation at planning and programming tables.

The implications may be that superintendents have not yet captured the perspective, focus, and sensitivity to the real world in education, and operate in an aseptic world of a laboratory; or, maybe they do perceive the real world and are apprehensive of that world's ability to generate exportable products to assist the school with new programs. Maybe the school is overprotecting its pupils in a closed school society.

The school is a closed system of social interaction and only a fragment of the community structure, as Waller pointed out.<sup>31</sup> There has to be continuity, sequence and integration between the socialization process of the school class and the community at large. While the school superintendents struggle with their problems, other pressing problems of the community must be resolved. However, it appears that the educational efforts and processes of the superintendent must reinforce the problem solving processes of the community and vice versa.

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<sup>31</sup>Willard Waller, "The School as a Social Organism," Chapter II, Sociology of Teaching (New York: Russel and Russel, 1961), pp. 6 - 7.

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT  
OF SUPERINTENDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED  
LEADERSHIP PROCESSES IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH THE COMMUNITY

TABLE 10-1  
Group "A"

Characteristic	1			2		3		4	
(a)	0	0	%	( 2)	13.33%	( 8)	53.33%	( 5)	33.33%
(b)	( 2)	13.33		( 9)	60.00	( 4)	26.67	0	0
(c)	0	0		( 1)	6.67	( 9)	60.00	( 5)	33.33
(d)	0	0		( 4)	26.67	(10)	66.67	( 1)	6.66
(e)	( 1)	6.67		( 8)	53.33	( 4)	46.67	(13)	17.33
Total	( 3)	4.00		(24)	32.00	(35)	46.67	(13)	17.33

TABLE 10-2  
Group "B"

Characteristic	1			2		3		4	
(a)	0	0	%	( 1)	10.00%	( 6)	60.00%	( 3)	30.00%
(b)	( 1)	10.00		( 4)	40.00	( 4)	40.00	( 1)	10.00
(c)	0	0		( 1)	10.00	( 6)	60.00	( 3)	30.00
(d)	0	0		0	0	( 8)	80.00	( 2)	20.00
(e)	0	0		( 4)	40.00	( 6)	60.00	( 0)	0
Total	( 1)	2.00		(10)	20.00	(30)	60.00	( 9)	18.00

TABLE 10-3  
Combined Groups

Characteristic	1			2		3		4	
(a)	0	0	%	( 3)	12.00%	(14)	56.00%	( 8)	32.00%
(b)	( 3)	12.00		(13)	52.00	( 8)	32.00	( 1)	4.00
(c)	0	0		( 2)	8.00	(15)	60.00	( 8)	32.00
(d)	0	0		( 4)	16.00	(18)	72.00	( 3)	12.00
(e)	( 1)	4.00		(12)	48.00	(10)	40.00	( 2)	8.00
Total	( 4)	3.20		(34)	27.20	(65)	52.00	(22)	17.60

SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND  
SCORES OF SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP  
PROCESSES OF SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR  
INTERACTION WITH THE COMMUNITY

TABLE 11-1

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	207	13.33	3.67
(b)	130	8.66	2.73
(c)	211	14.07	3.81
(d)	179	11.93	3.39
(e)	151	10.07	3.01
Total	878	11.69	3.34

TABLE 11-2

Group "A"

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	142	14.20	3.84
(b)	102	10.20	3.04
(c)	140	14.00	3.80
(d)	140	14.00	3.80
(e)	113	11.30	3.26
Total	637	12.74	3.55

TABLE 11-3

Combined Groups

Characteristic	Points	m	Score
(a)	349	13.96	3.79
(b)	232	9.28	2.86
(c)	351	10.04	3.81
(d)	319	12.76	3.55
(e)	264	10.56	3.11
Total	1515	12.12	3.42



### Summary and Comparative Analysis

The traditional approach of writers on educational administration towards the leadership style of school administrators has been to eulogize the democratic style as best for our schools. As was mentioned earlier in this study, the democratic concepts of educational administration have been transferred into the educational field by analogy from political science. Since our constitution guarantees a democratic form of government, and public schools are inventions of state and local governments, political scientists rationalize that schools must be conducted within the framework of a political democracy.

Democracy, as viewed by libertarians, is basically a process of governing or administering a public organization by free, intelligent discussion. In the case of public schools, it is a means for promoting discussions of obtrusive educational problems and issues for achieving continuous improvement of educational programs through experimental action-out-of discussion. Such a process implies an elaborate structure of a school organization, the control over which reaches up to the state level and, at times, as far as the federal level. It implies constitutions, legislatures, executives, courts, and parties.

Sound democracy must continuously reaffirm faith in its own processes through deliberative discussion and continued compromise. But, leaving the public educational institution totally to the process of continuous discussion and participation of the citizenry, and the groups that operate within their social structure, may lead to a no-action situation which can cause nothing but chaos. On the other hand, decisions arising from total participation and discussion of all citizens and their representative groups can also lead to radical, irreversible experiments. Data accumulated as a result of this study

would tend to question this total abdication of school administration to popular discussion and participation. It would seem that those who propose that good administration and supervision always arise from the situation, and that the consensus of all is required to resolve the problem through discussion, also suggests that this is the way for a chief school administrator to go at all times when bludgeoned with a problem. If this were the case, it would not be illogical to conclude that some invisible hand directs the outcome of these discussions to arrive at a rational decision at all times to resolve the problem. But, experience shows that this is not always true.

The school is in a unique and crucial position among public institutions. Because it reflects the community it serves, the school is hit by nearly every political and behavioral trend that sweeps the country. The superintendent, in his role as chief school officer, is expected to exercise his leadership in the midst of all this action and, in so doing, he interacts with various groups who are involved in the conduct of school business. Does the superintendent always operate in a democratic style? Or does he feel that he must utilize varying leadership processes, depending on the issue and the people with whom he interacts?

The data collected and analyzed for this study indicate that superintendents in the Northern portion of Cook County will react differently to problems and interaction groups, depending upon the perspective with which they view their role as superintendent. Differences in self-perceived leadership processes between leadership style selectors and goal selectors do exist. These differences will be summarized by reference groups with which superintendents interact. A statement on the overall self-perceived leadership style of the

combined groups will be made after each summary.

The total of all responses for Group A superintendents equals 375, and the highest possible points that could be obtained from the point values on the scale are 7,500. Total Group B responses equal 250; the highest possible points total 5,000. For both groups combined, total point values on the scales equal 625 and the highest possible points that could be obtained equal 12,500. Of the twenty-five superintendents interviewed, fifteen, or sixty percent, chose leadership style and ten, or forty percent, chose goal setting as more important in their role as superintendent.

#### School Boards

A little more than one-third of Group A respondents perceive their leadership style as participative group, as compared to one half of the Group B respondents. This would indicate that the goal selectors are more democratic in their interaction with the school board than leadership style selectors. Little less than half the Group A respondents see themselves as consultative in their leadership style, as compared to forty five percent of the Group B respondents.

Only four of the Group A responses appeared on the authoritative exploitive dimension of the scale. One response indicated a lack of confidence in the board's decisions on matters of budget. The other three indicated very little interaction with the school board on the issue of improving supervisory techniques. None of the Group B respondents perceive themselves as exploitive authoritative in their interaction with school board members.

Eight or 10.66 percent of all the Group A responses on the "Board" scales indicated a benevolent authoritative style of leadership, as compared with three, or 6 percent of the Group B respondents. One Group A respondent did not feel

that the board's policy decisions are in accord with his professional judgement. Four of the respondents of this group did not think the board knows enough about administrative techniques to enable them to evaluate which ones should be implemented. Three of the same group felt that the board should not be involved in any discussions on curricular goals and programs. All three, or six percent of the Group B respondents, did not feel, in the same manner as those of Group A, that the board is knowledgeable enough to set standards for improving the quality of supervision.

Therefore, it appears that in their interaction with school board members, superintendents as a combined group operate in the authoritative dimensions of leadership style on issues relating to policy, administrative techniques and curricular innovations. The issue on which both groups combined exercise the greatest amount of authoritative style of leadership is on the matter of improving administrative techniques.

The mean of all point values converted to a score indicates that, in general, the leadership style selectors perceive themselves as employing a high degree of consultative leadership process and the goal setters see themselves as exercising a low participative group or democratic style of leadership. Both groups combined appear to adhere to a high consultative style of leadership approaching the democratic style of leadership. This would indicate that, as a combined group, these superintendents have a substantial amount of confidence in their Boards of Education, meet conflict with the boards in a constructive manner, have a moderate amount of interpersonal relationship with board members and usually discuss curricular problems and planned action before setting goals and programs. They tend not to involve the board in establishing goals

and programs.

### Principals and Staff

None of the respondents from either group perceives himself as authoritative exploitive in his dealings with his principals and staff. Nearly eleven percent of the Group A responses for all characteristics combined indicate a self-perceived authoritative benevolent style of leadership. These superintendents exhibit very little confidence in and interaction with principals' and staff's interest in improving the quality of teaching. None of the Group B respondents perceives himself as authoritative benevolent.

One third of the Group B responses indicate that some superintendents of this group involve their principals in discussions on budget recommendations, programs to improve quality of teaching, administrative techniques, policy matters and curricular innovations. They are consultative in their style. Forty percent of the Group A responses fall into this dimension of leadership process.

The other two thirds of the Group B responses lie in the participative group dimension of the scale. Nearly half of the Group A responses fall in this dimension. Both groups singularly perceive themselves as participative group in their style of leadership, but Group B respondents score higher in this dimension. Group A responses indicate that these superintendents have much less confidence than Group B respondents in their principals' and staffs' recommendations on budgets and their principals' and staffs' acceptance of responsibility for improving the quality of teaching.

Responses of both groups combined indicate that superintendents, in general, exercise a low key democratic or participative group style of leadership.

On a combined basis, the superintendents perceive themselves as high consultative on only one item, namely, budget recommendations. The mean of 15.42 and a score of 4.08 are the highest values obtained for the combined responses on the inter-relationship of all operating characteristics with this interaction group.

Quantified responses indicate that superintendents hold their principals and staffs in high esteem, have a great amount of confidence in their administrative ability and enjoy a mutually supportive loyalty. The only criticisms leveled at principals by superintendents were their inability to evaluate teachers objectively and their lack of knowledge on financial matters. However, the superintendents who made these comments also admitted that a valid tool to measure teaching effectiveness is yet to be developed and future administrators need a better academic background in school budgeting and finances.

#### Teachers

Next to the interaction of superintendents with parents, teachers receive the highest percent of responses falling on the authoritative dimension of the leadership processes scale. Over nine percent of the Group A responses fell into this dimension, whereas only four percent of the Group B responses were so classified. Budget recommendations, responsibility for improving quality of teaching, policies and curricular innovations are the issues on which superintendents perceive themselves as authoritative exploitive in their interaction with teachers. For the combined groups, 7.20 percent of the total responses fall into this category.

Less of the Group B respondents than Group A respondents feel they must exercise an authoritative style of leadership with their teachers. An equal percentage (52 percent) of the respondents from Group A and B perceive them-

selves as consultative, but forty percent of the responses for Group B, as compared with 21.33 percent for Group A, fall on the participative group dimension.

For all items combined, Group B is more confident than Group A in reference to teachers' ability to recommend budgets, to improve their quality of teaching, to recommend policies and, particularly, to participate in developing curricular programs. The two groups combined operate in the middle of the consultative leadership style dimension.

#### Parents

The only item on which respondents of both Groups do not perceive themselves as authoritative exploitive and benevolent is the amount of interaction and communication they have with parents to gain parents' understanding of school problems and progress. The amount of interaction on this item is extensive because it focuses on the need for additional funds to meet the pressing educational demands in terms of facilities and programs.

Schools will suffer unless emergency funds are forthcoming, because of pending personal property tax reductions, and the court decision ruling unconstitutional township tax collectors' practice of withholding two percent of the funds for township purposes, including schools. Parents' support in face of the superintendents' and school boards' financial woes is needed.

Only 9.35 percent of the total Group A responses fall on the participative group dimension, whereas eighteen percent of total Group B responses appear in this category. Nearly fifty-five percent of the total item responses for Group A and sixty percent for Group B were placed by the respondents on the consultative dimension of the scale.

Nearly one third of the total responses of both groups combined indicate

that superintendents feel they must deal with parents authoritatively on matters of allocating tax money to educational programs, improving quality of teaching, school discipline and curricular innovations. More than two thirds of the combined responses, however, encourage parents' participation in these matters. In general, superintendents feel that parents are not knowledgeable enough to participate actively in formulating and developing programs aimed at improving the quality of teaching.

Matters of discipline, although a major problem for schools in recent years, do not seem to be as crucial as the need for parents to understand the problem of improving educational quality. Parents pressure the school for subjects they label as "relevant." Maybe the school has acceded to their wishes at the expense of basic studies and the result is an indication of a drop in educational quality.

Although there is quite a bit of interaction and communication between the superintendent's office and parents, respondents indicated that this is done mostly on an indirect basis, in a downward communication mode, and through various committees and councils whose representation includes parents.

On all issues, except quality of education, respondents of both groups combined perceive themselves as operating with a consultative leadership process in their interaction with parents. Responses and comments of superintendents from both groups indicate that conflict between respondents and parents on the issue of educational quality does exist.



### Community

Group A and Group B respondents view the issue of the need to get the community to feel a responsibility for improving the quality of education in about the same manner as they do in their interaction with parents. The superintendents' cry is for more emphasis on basics, mostly mathematics and English.

Group B respondents appear to interact and communicate with the community more extensively than Group A respondents, although, on the issue of votes cast for bond referendums, the leadership style selectors indicate a slightly higher confidence than the goal selectors. More of the Group B respondents consult community agencies than Group A respondents to discuss problems of school-community relations. In their interaction with the community, about an equal percent of each group perceive their leadership style as democratic.

The combined responses of both groups indicate that 17.60 percent of the superintendents operate in the democratic or participative group dimension; fifty-two percent are consultative; 27.20 percent perceive themselves as authoritative benevolent; and only 3.20 percent of the responses indicate an authoritative exploitive leadership process.

### All Reference Groups Combined

Both groups perceive their leadership styles within a dimension that ranges from authoritative exploitive to participative. Respondents do not perceive themselves as authoritative benevolent on any issue in their interaction with principals and staff. Group B did not select any responses on the first dimension of the scale, in their interaction with school board members. A slight and rarely used authoritative exploitive process is perceived by respondents in their interaction with the community and a low key authoritative

exploitive leadership process is perceived by superintendents when interacting on certain issues with teachers. The highest degree of an authoritative leadership process is perceived by respondents when interacting with parents, more so by Group A than Group B.

The average of all response point values and converted scores for all characteristics and reference groups combined indicates that, overall, the Group A respondents perceive themselves as operating within the dimension of a consultative leadership process that lies midway between the benevolent and participative group styles. The goal selectors, Group B, perceive themselves as consultative and approaching the participative group leadership process.

Details of further comparisons are presented in tables, graph, and profiles appearing on the following pages.

SUMMARY TABLES OF POINTS, MEANS AND SCORES OF  
SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES OF  
SUPERINTENDENTS IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH ALL REFERENCE GROUPS AND  
CHARACTERISTICS COMBINED

TABLE 13-1

Group "A"

Ref. Group	Points	m	Score
Board	1038	13.84	3.77
Principals-Staff	1124	14.99	3.99
Teachers	908	12.11	3.42
Parents	828	11.05	3.21
Community	878	11.69	3.34
Total	4776	12.73	3.54

<sup>a</sup>Highest possible points = 7,500 (375 responses x 20).

TABLE 13-2

Group "B"

Ref. Group	Points	m	Score
Board	764	15.28	4.06
Principals-Staff	804	16.08	4.22
Teachers	707	14.14	3.83
Parents	611	12.22	3.44
Community	637	12.74	3.55
Total	3523	14.09	3.82

<sup>a</sup>Highest possible points = 5,000 (250 responses x 20).

TABLE 13-3

Combined Groups

Ref. Group	Points	m	Score
Board	1802	14.42	3.88
Principals-Staff	1928	15.42	4.08
Teachers	1615	12.92	3.58
Parents	1439	11.51	3.30
Community	1515	12.12	3.42
Total	8299	13.28	3.66

<sup>a</sup>Highest possible points = 12,500 (625 responses x 20).

SUMMARY TABLES OF NUMBER AND PERCENT OF SUPERINTENDENTS'  
SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES IN THEIR INTERACTION  
WITH ALL REFERENCE GROUPS AND CHARACTERISTICS COMBINED

TABLE 12-1

## Group "A"

Ref. Group	1	2	3	4
Board	( 4) 5.34%	( 8) 10.66%	(37) 49.33%	(26) 34.67%
Principals-Staff	0 0	( 8) 10.66%	(30) 40.00	(37) 49.34%
Teachers	( 7) 9.34	(13) 17.33	(39) 52.00	(16) 21.33
Parents	(10) 13.33	(17) 22.66	(41) 54.66	( 7) 9.35
Community	( 3) 4.00	(24) 32.00	(35) 46.67	(13) 17.33
Total	(24) 6.40	(70) 18.67	(182) 48.53	(99) 26.10

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 375.

TABLE 12-2

## Group "B"

Ref. Group	1	2	3	4
Board	0 0 %	( 3) 6.00%	(22) 44.00%	(25) 50.00%
Principals-Staff	0 0	0 0	(16) 32.00	(34) 68.00
Teachers	( 2) 4.00	( 2) 4.00	(26) 52.00	(20) 40.00
Parents	( 4) 8.00	( 7) 14.00	(30) 60.00	( 9) 18.00
Community	( 1) 2.00	(10) 20.00	(30) 60.00	( 9) 18.00
Total	( 7) 2.80	(22) 8.80	(124) 49.60	(97) 38.80

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 250.

TABLE 12-3

## Combined Groups

Ref. Group	1	2	3	4
Board	( 4) 3.20%	(11) 8.80%	(59) 47.20%	(51) 40.80%
Principals-Staff	0 0	( 8) 6.40	(46) 36.80	(71) 56.80
Teachers	( 9) 7.20	(15) 12.00	(65) 52.00	(36) 28.80
Parents	(14) 11.20	(24) 19.20	(71) 56.80	(16) 12.80
Community	( 4) 3.20	(34) 27.20	(65) 52.00	(22) 17.60
Total	(31) 4.96	(92) 14.72	(306) 48.96	(196) 31.36

<sup>a</sup>Total responses = 625.

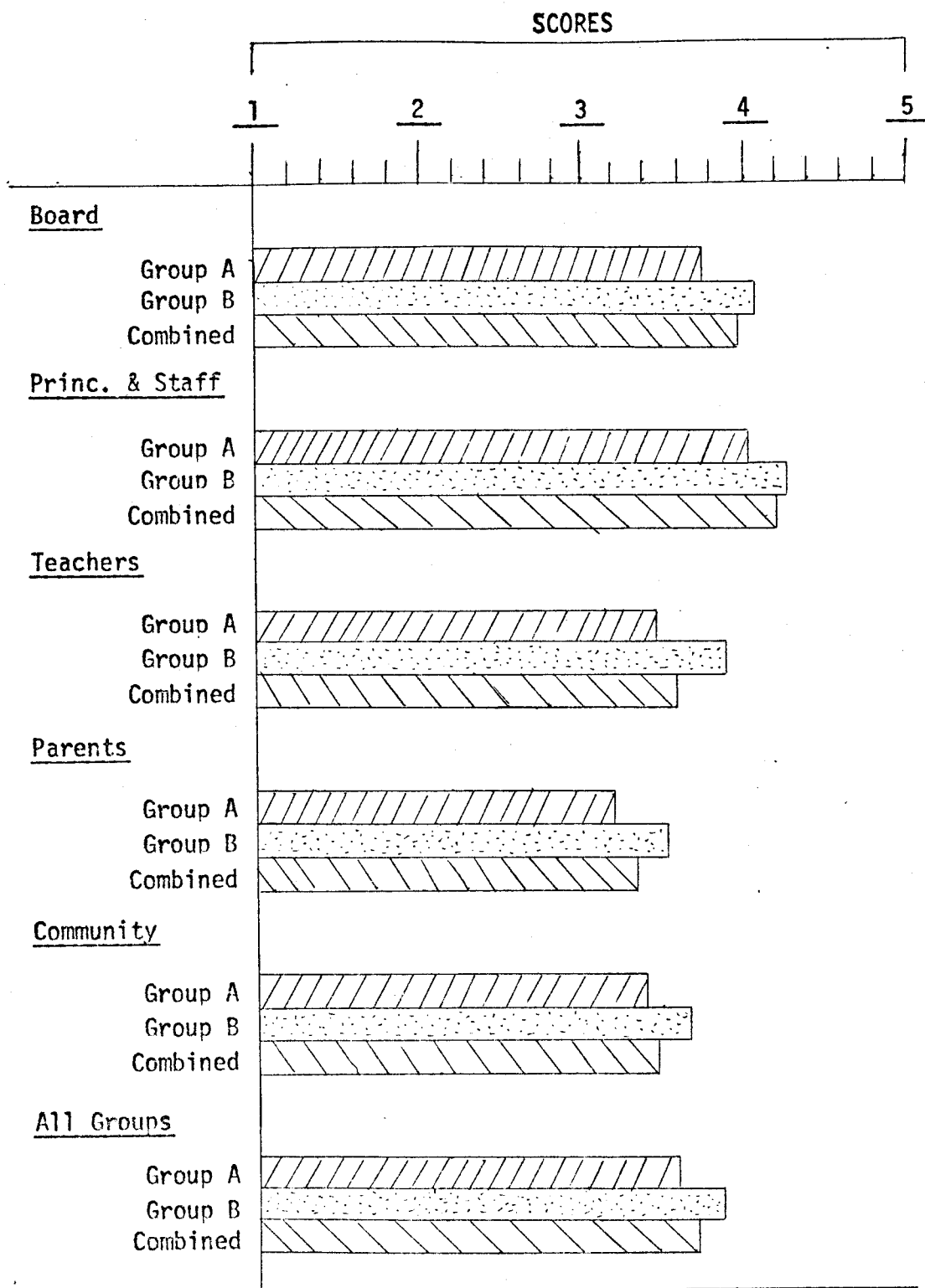


Fig. 1.--Summary bar graph of means converted to scores of all combined responses to items on the questionnaire for each reference group interacting with Group A, Group B and Combined groups of superintendents.

The means of all point values, representing the measured responses to superintendents' self-perceived leadership processes, in their interaction with five reference groups on selected issues, were converted to scores along a System 1 to System 4 continuum by assuming that System 1 covers the range from 1.0 to 1.99, System 2 covers 2.00 to 2.99, System 3 covers 3.0 to 3.99, and System 4 covers 4.0 to 4.99. The science-based organizational theory emerging from Likert's research findings on administration and organizational performance has obvious implications for leadership styles employed by superintendents in their relationships with their interaction groups. An application of these findings to the administrative role of the superintendent would tend to predict that his relations with the interaction groups, on the average, would be better, the closer his leadership process approaches System 4 (participative group). Similarly, shifts to System 4 should result in improvement in relationships and in goal attainment, and shifts toward System 1 should have the opposite outcome.<sup>32</sup>

An analysis of the bar graph in figure 1 shows that the Group B bars, representing the converted scores of all item responses for each interaction group, are longer than for the corresponding A group responses for all interaction groups. The B group's self-perceived leadership processes are somewhat more toward the participative group style than are those of the Group A responses.

In general, the B group superintendents perceive themselves as utilizing the participative group leadership process with the school board and their

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<sup>32</sup>Likert, The Human Organization, p. 41.

principals and staff. They perceive themselves as consultative with teachers, parents and community. The highest degree of participative group leadership process is perceived in their interaction with principals and staff.

Group A superintendents perceived an overall participative group leadership process with only one interaction group, namely, principals and staff. Group A's self-perceived leadership processes with the remaining four interaction groups fall into varying degrees along the consultative dimension of the scale.

Even though variations in self-perceived leadership processes between the two groups are evident, both groups appear to exhibit an identical pattern in their shift away from and towards the System 4 dimension. Both groups indicate decreasing degrees of a consultative leadership process with the remaining interaction groups in the following descending order: teachers, community, and parents. Evidence indicates that the reference group with which superintendents interact most extensively and with the highest degree of confidence and trust is the principals and staff. Respondents indicated that this group feels the most responsibility towards educational improvements and they afford this group greater active participation, in developing and implementing educational programs and goals, than any one of the other interaction groups included in this study.

The lowest converted score and the shortest bar were attributed to the parent group with which superintendents interact in a self-perceived, low, consultative leadership process. The interaction process of Group A with parents approaches closely to the authoritative benevolent dimension on the scale.

According to Likert, the loyalties, attitudes, motivations, goals, and

perceptions of all members and their collective capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision-making "reflect the internal state and health of the organization."<sup>33</sup> This statement points to an implication for the need of better parent-school relationships. The self-perceived reactions of superintendents indicated that there is possible need to up-grade parents' knowledge, understanding, feeling and action on issues about which the superintendent, as a professional, is more knowledgeable. The superintendents must work at loosening up the workings of their school systems.

Perhaps the bigness of the school system, the sheer number of parents involved and the superintendent's needed economies of time would stifle the superintendent's efforts to bring about a more direct and effective interaction-influence and communication with parents on issues about which they are not professionally knowledgeable. As an alternative to increased direct, face-to-face interaction with parents, the superintendent could act on formulating and maintaining operationally various groups and sub-groups, with representation from the interaction groups, for the purpose of eliciting the participation and cooperation of parents to work jointly for the preservation of the general welfare of pupils. Without such channels of communication made available to parents, it appears that superintendents are forced to exercise an authoritative style of leadership towards the parent group on most issues of a professionally educational nature.

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<sup>33</sup> Likert, The Human Organization, p. 29.



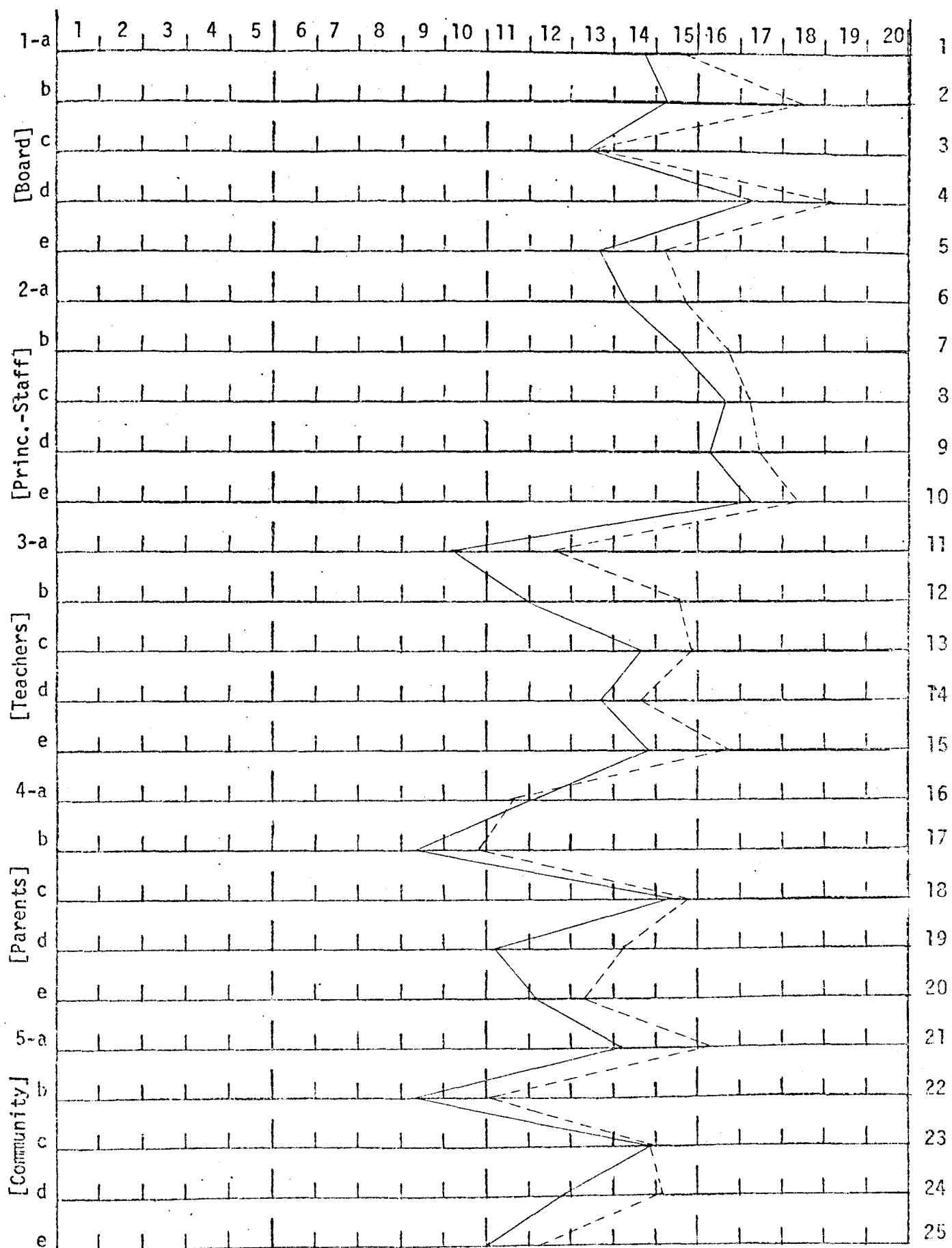


Fig. 2.--Graphic profile of average scores of Group "A" (—) and Group "B" (----) respondents' self-perceived leadership processes for each operational characteristic.

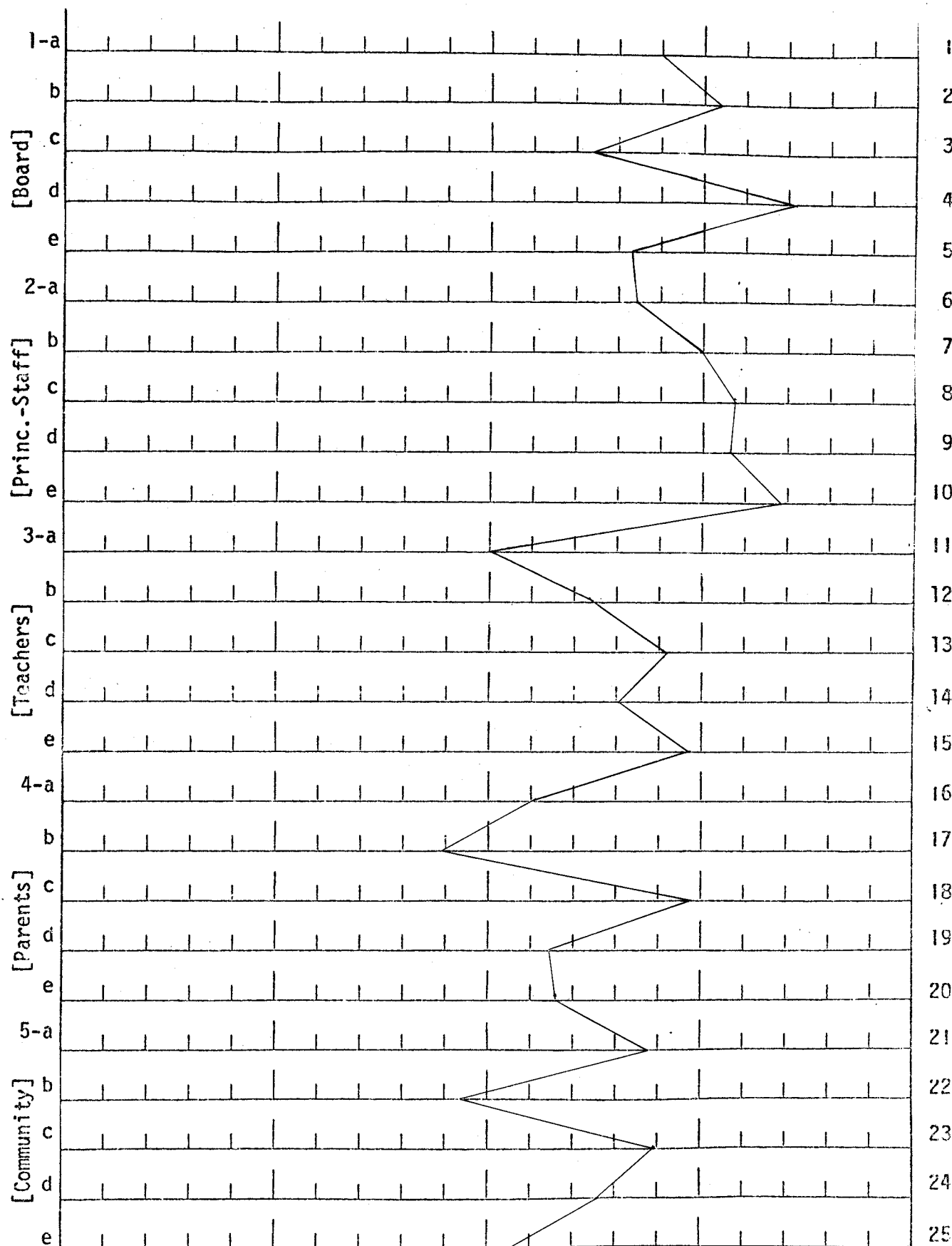


Fig. 3.--Graphic profile of operational characteristics and processes of Groups "A" and "B" combined.

Figure 2 shows a profile of the distribution of the average point values assigned to responses selected by Group A and Group B respondents for all twenty-five items related to five interaction groups in this study. A comparison of the profiles reveals an impressive difference between the self-perceived leadership processes of both groups. Group B superintendents, the goal setters, tend more towards the participative group style (System 4) of leadership than do the Group A respondents. Some exceptions and similarities on specific issues are noticeable. A comparative analysis of the profiles shown in figure 2 may be made from the standpoint of looking at issues and determining how the leadership process varies between the two groups on a specific issue and in the interaction with a specific reference group.

Item (a) in the questionnaire for each of the five interaction groups inquires into the extent of confidence and trust superintendents have in each of the interaction groups on the issue of budget decisions. The greatest amount of confidence shown towards a reference group on budget matters is indicated in the interaction between Group B respondents and their principals and staff members. With reference to budgetary and financial matters the A group indicated a greater amount of confidence in school board members than in principals and staff.

The community ranks third in the extent of confidence and trust on the issue of spending for education. There is a considerable variation in the type of leadership process perceived by both groups on budget matters in their interaction with teachers. Group A ranks teachers below parents and appears to exercise an authoritative benevolent leadership process with teachers, when budget recommendations are considered, while the B group is more consultative.

Parents have earned more confidence and trust from the A group on budget

decisions than teachers, but the B group reversed this order, a possible indication that the goal selectors are working harder than the A group to get teachers to make commitments to educational programs. It is interesting to note that there is only one indication of an overall authoritative benevolent leadership process on this issue, and it is perceived by the A group in their relationship with teachers.

The issue of developing school board policies appeared in items (b) - School Board, (d) - Principals and Staff, and (d) Teachers. Group A respondents perceive their leadership style to be highly consultative with board members and teachers, but low-participative group with principals and staff. The B group appears to invoke a full participation from board members and principals and staff when developing written policies. The interaction of the B group with teachers on policy matters is frequent and most of the time with a fair amount of confidence and trust; it is greater for Group B than for Group A superintendents.

Both groups of respondents perceive a similar middle-of-the-road consultative leadership style with the school board on matters of improving administrative and supervisory techniques. However, the amount of interaction and communication with principals and staff, aimed at improving these techniques, is extensive. The mean scores of 15.60 for Group A and 16.10 for Group B indicate a fair amount of a democratic leadership process perceived by the respondents in their drive to develop stronger administrators and supervisors.

One of the indicators of good or bad relations that a superintendent has with his school board is the manner in which he gets along with his school board on policy matters. The highest mean score on any issue with an interaction

group in this study was obtained by the B group in its interaction with school board members on policy matters. Item (d) - School Board Members - produced a mean of 18.40 and a converted mean score of 4.68. For Group A the mean was 16.26 converted to a score of 4.25. Both groups appear to be working closely together in an interaction process which is extensive, friendly, and with a high degree of confidence and trust. Both groups, but Group B more so than Group A, appear to aim at making their schools far more effectively responsive to pupil needs and, in so doing, want to place the superintendency and the board in a position of leadership.

On the issue of improving the quality of teaching, Group A respondents view their leadership style to be authoritative benevolent with parents and community, while the B group respondents perceive a similar leadership process on this issue with parents only. Principals and staff and teachers rank considerably higher on the dimensions of leadership processes than the other reference groups. The B group attributed the greatest amount of responsibility, felt for improving the quality of teaching, to principals and staff members. This issue was interrelated with operating characteristics used in the interaction of Groups A and B with principals and staff, teachers, parents and community. Only in the interaction of Group B superintendents with principals and staff was a democratic style of leadership perceived on the issue of improving the quality of teaching. The other averages ranged from System 2 to System 3. However, some individual responses even indicated an authoritative exploitive leadership process.

The leadership process perceived by Group B superintendents on the issue of instituting curricular reforms [item (e) on the profile, for all interaction

groups except community/ consistently tends closer to the full participative group style. The B group respondents perceive their leadership style to be democratic in their interaction with teachers, principals and staff members, while the A group superintendents perceive their style to be more consultative with these reference groups.

Item (c) - Teachers - measured the responses to indicate the amount of interaction and communication prompted by the superintendent to improve relationships between teachers and administrators. Group A respondents indicated a self-perceived, high-consultative leadership style, while Group B respondents indicated a participative group or democratic style.

Item (c) - Parents and Community - measured the responses on the issue of communicating school problems and progress. Most of the Group B respondents indicated a self-perceived participative leadership process with parents, and a high-consultative process with the community. Group A superintendents perceive themselves as high-consultative, approaching the participative group leadership process with parents. In their interaction with the community, the self-perceived leadership process of Group A was similar to that of Group B.

On the issue of maintaining school discipline, Group A superintendents appear to border between the authoritative benevolent and consultative, and would rather not become directly involved with parents on problems of discipline. The B group appears to be more willing to come to grips with disciplinary problems and perceives itself as more consultative.

The B group superintendents interact more often with influential people in the community than the A group, as indicated by responses to item (d) - Community. This group exhibits more confidence and trust in the influential

groups and persons of the community on educational matters than does the A group. Both groups consult all community agencies, whenever the need arises, to discuss problems related to agency assistance, prior to setting goals and planned action. Both groups indicated a low-consultative style of leadership in their interaction with the community on the issues of improving school-community relationships.

Table 14 shows the means of point values assigned to responses, converted to scores, for items related to the major issues selected for this study. Differences between scores (Group B to Group A) are indicated to assist in the analysis of the profiles which show a graphic comparison of leadership processes perceived by the two groups of superintendents.

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF SCORES OF GROUP "A" AND GROUP "B" MEASURED RESPONSES  
CLASSIFIED BY MAJOR ISSUES

ISSUE	INTERACTION GROUP	SCORES		DIFFERENCE
		Group "A"	Group "B"	
1. Spending tax dollars wisely; budgets.	Board (a)	3.75	3.88	+ .13
	Princ. & Staff (a)	3.64	3.94	+ .30
	Teachers (a)	2.85	3.28	+ .43
	Parents (a)	3.20	3.10	- .10
	Community (a)	3.67	3.84	+ .17
2. Developing written board policies	Board (b)	3.85	4.50	+ .65
	Princ. & Staff (d)	4.04	4.30	+ .26
	Teachers (d)	3.55	3.72	+ .17
3. Improving administrative and supervisory techniques.	Board (c)	3.45	3.48	+ .03
	Princ. & Staff (c)	4.12	4.22	+ .10
4. Maintaining good relations with school board.	School board (d)	4.25	4.68	+ .43
5. Improving quality of teaching.	Princ. & Staff (b)	3.91	4.14	+ .23
	Teachers (b)	3.20	3.96	+ .76
	Parents (b)	2.64	2.98	+ .34
	Community (b)	2.73	3.04	+ .31
6. Instituting curricular reforms.	School Board (e)	3.53	3.82	+ .29
	Princ. & Staff (e)	4.28	4.48	+ .20
	Teachers (e)	3.79	4.18	+ .39
	Parents (e)	3.24	3.42	+ .18



TABLE 11  
(continued)

ISSUE	INTERACTION GROUP	SCORES		DIFFERENCE
		Group "A"	Group "B"	
7. Improving relations between teachers & administrators.	Teachers (c)	3.72	4.00	+ .28
8. Communication on school problems and progress.	Parents (c)	3.91	4.04	+ .13
	Community (c)	3.81	3.80	- .01
9. Maintaining school discipline.	Parents (d)	3.05	3.68	+ .63
10. Influential people in community.	Community (d)	3.39	3.80	+ .41
11. Improving school community relations.	Community (e)	3.01	3.26	+ .25
TOTAL		3.54	3.82	+ .28

<sup>a</sup>The letters (a), (b), (c), (d) and (e) appearing after each interaction group represent the items in the questionnaire for the specified interaction group.

## CHAPTER V

### DIFFERENCES IN DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE SELECTORS AND GOAL SELECTORS

To determine some differences in the demographic characteristics between leadership style selectors and goal selectors, respondents were asked to fill out Section I of the questionnaire, which asked for the following background information:

1. Highest degree obtained and the University attended.
2. Age
3. Living status: own home, rent, board.
4. Number of years employed in present district.
5. Number of years as superintendent in present district and other districts.
6. Numbering, in order of importance, the three factors that best characterize the respondent's role as superintendent. The factors contained in the questionnaire were: (a) coordinator and facilitator, (b) business executive, (c) teacher, (d) consultant and advisor, (e) salesman, (f) politician, (g) enforcer, (h) change agent.

Although it is beyond the scope of this study to explore fully the differences in the demographic characteristics between the two groups of respondents, it was felt that a few selected demographic variables should be obtained which potentially could be related to the cognitive self-perception of leadership style and goal setting selectors. And, so, the question is posed: how do Group A superintendents, sixty percent of the survey respondents, differ from the Group B superintendents, forty percent of the respondents?

TABLE 15

## HIGHEST DEGREES OBTAINED AND UNIVERSITIES AT WHICH DEGREES WERE EARNED

UNIVERSITY ATTENDED	Masters						Doctorate						All	
	A		B		Both		A		B		Both		Total	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Buena Vista College	1	6.7			1	4							1	4
Bradley University							1	6.7			1	4	1	4
Columbia University							1	6.7			1	4	1	4
DePaul University	1	6.7			1	4							1	4
Harvard University							1	6.7			1	4	1	4
Univ. of Illinois	3	20.0	2	20	5	20	1	6.7			1	4	6	24
Southern Ill. Univ.									1	10	1	4	1	4
Univ. of Indiana									1	10	1	4	1	4
Univ. of Iowa									1	10	1	4	1	4
Loyola University							1	6.7			1	4	1	4
National College	1	6.7			1	4							1	4
Northwestern			2	20	2	8	2	13.0	2	20	4	16	6	24
State Univ. of N. Y.									1	10	1	4	1	4
Univ. of Pa.	1	6.7			1	4							1	4
Roosevelt University	1	6.7			1	4							1	4
TOTAL	8	53.5	4	40	12	48	7	46.5	6	60	13	52	25	100

### Highest Degree Obtained and University Attended

The number and percent, by type, of highest degrees attained and the universities at which degrees were earned by each group of respondents and both groups combined are shown in Table 15. Sixty percent of the goal selectors and 46.5 percent of the leadership style selectors have earned a Doctor's degree in education. All these degrees were earned in the field of educational administration. Fifty three and one half percent of the Group A respondents and forty percent of Group B respondents hold a Master's degree. More than half the number of Master's degrees were in the field of educational administration and the others were in specialized educational areas.

Nearly half of the respondents from both groups combined earned their degrees from Northwestern University and University of Illinois. Thus, about half of the superintendents of the Northern Cook County school districts, whose assessed valuation per pupil lies below the median, are graduates of these two universities. Six, or twenty-four percent, of the superintendents from both groups combined attended universities in states other than Illinois. One Group A superintendent obtained his Doctorate from Columbia, another from Harvard, and one from Loyola of Chicago.

The percent of Group B superintendents holding a Doctor's degree is higher than that for Group A. This may indicate that the Group B superintendents are more aggressive and more deliberate in working towards the attainment of academic goals. Their tenacity of purpose on the academic level appears to be a strong characteristic of their behavior as educational administrators. Motivation to attain personal goals set by leaders to meet their own needs can act as further motivation to attain organizational goals. The motivational intensity to set and

attain goals appears to be greater with the Group B respondents than the Group A respondents, as evidenced by the higher percent of Doctorates earned by that group.

The higher percent of Doctorates in the B group than in the A group may also be the result of the higher requirements which a new superintendent must meet in order to qualify for the superintendency. An educational administrator who aspires to the position of superintendent must produce his Doctorate credentials to almost any district school board receiving his application. This may have not been the case two decades ago. The Superintendent's Certificate requirement and requirements qualifying for membership in the Illinois Association of School Administrators and the American Association of School Administrators point up the academic upgrading for the preparation of school superintendents. And, too, some critics think that the requirements are invalid and not relevant in today's world, particularly with respect to superintendents. On the other hand, these new requirements which demand a Doctorate of a superintendent might have some causal effect on the differences between Group A and Group B superintendents.

Fifty two percent of the total combined group of respondents hold the Doctor's degree. For the most part, these superintendents from both groups see themselves primarily as educators. Improving the quality of teaching and encouraging curricular innovations far outstrip all other goals as their most important long-range continuing objective. In this regard, Groups A and B seem to agree more often than they disagree on the approach they take with their interaction groups.

### Age Comparison

The average of all respondents is 44.7 years, while the average age of Group A superintendents is 45, and that of Group B is 40.3. More than half of the goal selectors are under 44 years of age. Only twenty percent of the Group A respondents are in this age bracket, a possible sign that a significant age gap is developing.

Eight, or 53.3 percent of the Group A respondents hold a Master's degree and seven, or 46.7 percent possess a Doctorate in education. Of the B group, four or forty percent have the Master's degree, whereas six, or 60 percent earned a Doctor's degree. The average age of the Group A Master's degree holders is 44.5 and the average age of the Group B superintendents with a Master's degree is 50.

The average age of the significantly higher percent of Group B superintendents with Doctorates is forty years, as compared to 45.6 years for the A group Doctorate holders. This may explain why the Group B superintendents are less consultative and more participative with their administrators than the A group. Goal selectors are younger; they expect their principals and staff to contribute through participation and involvement in plans and goals. They appear to be looking to their administrators for suggestions to problem solutions in a participative manner, and not only as consultants. This may indicate that they tend to evaluate their principals' performance somewhat more strictly than their counterparts in Group A. The price for a democratic leadership process is good performance.

The youngest Group A superintendent, holding a Master's degree, is thirty-two years old, and administers a school district located in a near Northwest suburban community with light industry. The oldest Group A superintendent, administering a large district with an enrollment of over 10,000 pupils, in a

large, old established suburban community, is sixty-two years old. An array of the Group A and B degree holders, by age, is shown in the following Table.

TABLE 16

AGE LISTING OF GROUP "A" AND GROUP "B"  
SUPERINTENDENTS BY TYPE OF DEGREE

Group "A"		Group "B"	
Master's	Doctor's	Master's	Doctor's
32	41	37	33
39	45	48	37
42	45	56	39
44	45	59	42
44	47		43
45	48		49
48	48		
62			
Ave. 44.5	45.6	50.0	40.0

Conversations with the schoolmen of both groups during the interviews indicated that the significant minority of the goal selector group lays claim to an enlightened vision of their role as superintendents. It appears that this younger "breed," in terms of their own professional concept, consider themselves to be new and different. They would like to set the goals, but they realize that the initiative to "start the ball rolling" must be theirs and they need to win the support and participation of all concerned.

To instigate and to involve appear to be the characteristics of the goal setters, more so than the Group A respondents who rely more upon their ability to translate the community's educational desires and objectives into programs. The B group, better educated, younger, and more in touch with the contemporary

situation, appears to be more aggressive, to know what goals are to be achieved, and to demand the involvement and participation of the reference groups through which goals and programs are to be achieved.

The frequency and percent of ages for Group A and Group B respondents are shown in Table 17.

### Living Status

In response to the factor of living status, all respondents indicated that they belong to the category of home owners. One of the conclusions that can be drawn from the data on this factor is that superintendents, as home owners, might be demonstrating an intent to establish long term residence in the community or they might be playing the game of stability for a few years. Research into demographic and biographic factors related to budgeting money, debt measures, and self perception of one's honesty and reliability indicates that home owners, belonging to the occupational category of professionals, demonstrate above average ability to budget personal and family expenditures, the best performance in paying bills promptly,<sup>1</sup> and a high degree of accuracy and honesty in reporting matters related to the debt measures.<sup>2</sup> Homeownership indicates that superintendents, as a professional group, are highly responsible, reliable, conservative in money matters, and "solid citizens" of the community in which they establish residence.

### Length of Service in District

The average length of service rendered by Group A superintendents in the

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<sup>1</sup>Ross Lawrence Goble, "Biographic Information and Consumer Credit Use," Journal of Consumer Credit Management, I (Spring, 1970), p. 108.

<sup>2</sup>Peat, Marwick, Caywood, Schiller & Co., "Eighteen Months' Factor Analysis," Factor Analysis of Credit Users Related to Paying Performance Over Time, A research study prepared for a Chicago based company by Peat, Marwick, Caywood Schiller & Co. (Chicago, 1965), p. A-2.



TABLE 17  
AGE COMPARISON OF GROUP "A" AND  
GROUP "B" SUPERINTENDENTS

Age	Group "A"		Group "B"		Both	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
30 - 34	1	6.7	1	10	2	8
35 - 39	1	6.7	3	30	4	16
40 - 44	4	26.6	2	20	6	24
45 - 49	8	53.3	2	20	10	40
50 - 54						
55 - 59			2	20	2	8
60 - 64	1	6.7			1	4
TOTAL	15	100.0	10	100	25	100
AVERAGE	45		40.3		44.7	

districts in which they are currently employed is 10.7 years, while for the Group B superintendents it is 6.8 years. The average years of service in the present district for both groups combined is 9.1 years. The mode for Group A is 12 years and four or 26.7 percent of the respondents fall into this category. Four years of seniority in the district is the length of time of service category into which the greatest number of Group B respondents fall, namely, two or twenty percent. For the combined groups, the mode of twelve years contains only the four Group A respondents, or sixteen percent of the total twenty five respondents.

Five or 33.3 percent of the Group A respondents indicated a seniority of ten to twelve years; of the B Group, only one or ten percent claimed this length of time of service in the district. Six or twenty-four percent of the combined groups have served as superintendents in their district from ten to twelve years.

An interesting observation on the range of years of employment in the present district is the nine to fifteen years of service interval, because this is the interval which demonstrates the expansion in the difference of years of service between the leadership style selectors and the goal selectors. In terms of percents, there are half as many Group B respondents than Group A respondents in this category. A further analysis of the seniority statistics shows that the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile for Group A respondents is 16.75 years, while for Group B it is nine years. This probably reflects the developing age gap between the two groups, a possible indication that the younger group with less seniority is the one which pushes harder and more openly, by encouraging more participation and involvement of their interaction groups, than the older group with more seniority, which tends more toward behind-the-scenes tactics.

The B group superintendents are more apt to be involved in and concerned

about controversies with all their interaction groups than the A group superintendents. This is evidenced by the substantially higher percentage of Group B responses, than Group A responses,<sup>3</sup> which fall into the dimension of a self-perceived participative group leadership process. This would indicate that the Group B respondents have a greater propensity for being involved and involving others than those in the A group.

The goal selectors, although in a significant minority, appear to be emerging as a younger group and, hence, with less seniority, and appear to indicate that the participative group style of leadership does not necessarily mean shying away from controversy so as not to "rock the boat." They are more intent than their senior counterparts in Group A on setting goals and getting their interaction groups involved.

Data on the comparative analysis of length of time of employment in the districts where respondents serve as superintendents are presented on the following page in Table 18.

#### Total Number of Years Employed as Superintendent

Respondents of both groups were asked to indicate the total number of years they served as superintendent in the present district, other districts and in all districts combined. Since the questionnaires and interviews were given during the summer months and at the beginning of the 1970 - 71 school term, all respondents, except three, counted their years of experience as of the end of the previous

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<sup>3</sup>See Table 12-1, Group "A", and Table 12-2, Group "B", page 261<sub>a</sub>.

TABLE 18

LENGTH OF TIME OF EMPLOYMENT  
IN PRESENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

Seniority In District (Years)	Group A		Group B		Both	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
2 - 11 months	1	6.7	1	10.0	2	8.0
1 - 2 years	1	6.7	2	20.0	3	12.0
3 - 4	2	13.3	3	30.0	5	20.0
5 - 6	1	6.7			1	4.0
7 - 8			1	10.0	1	4.0
9 - 10	2	13.3	2	20.0	4	16.0
11 - 15	4	26.7			4	16.0
16 - 20	2	13.3			2	8.0
Over 20	2	13.3	1	10.0	3	12.0
Total	15	100.0	10	100.0	25	100.0

Average L.E.	10.7 years		6.8 years		9.1 years	
Mode - L.E.	12 yrs. (n = 4)		4 yrs. (n = 2)		12 yrs. (n = 4)	
No. and %: 10 - 12 yrs.	5	(33.3%)	1	(10.0%)	6	(24.0%)
No. and %: 9 - 15 yrs.	6	(40.0%)	2	(20.0%)	8	(32.0%)
Longest L.E. over 20 yrs.	22, 25	(13.3%)	27	(10.0%)	22, 25, 27	(12.0%)

<sup>a</sup>L.E. is the length of time of employment in present district.

school year. The two respondents, one from Group A and one from Group B, had been recently hired as superintendents of their new districts and accounted for three months in their new position. Both superintendents indicated this on the questionnaire, and, hence, the fraction of the year served is shown in decimal form as .25 years in Table 20.

Two thirds, or 66.7 percent of the Group A respondents have held the position of superintendent in no other district but the one in which they are presently employed. Of the B group, seven or seventy percent served as superintendents in one district only. Overall, sixty-eight percent of the combined groups held no other position as superintendent than in the district by which they are currently employed. In this regard, both groups appear to be alike.

The range of total years of employment of the Group A superintendents, who had served only one district in this capacity, was from 3 months to a little over twelve years, while the range in years of service for the B group respondents, characterized by this same employment background, was from three months to twenty-seven years. However, if the respondent with twenty-seven years of seniority is excluded, the other six who fall into this category have served as superintendents in a range from three months to four years. In other words, sixty percent of the B group have been in their school districts as superintendents for four years or less, as compared to 26.7 percent of the A group with the same length of seniority.

One third of the A group respondents indicated they held positions as superintendents in other districts. One superintendent has twenty-five years of service as superintendent with his present district and, prior to this, an additional twelve years. He is the oldest superintendent in the Northern portion of Cook County and is deserving of highest esteem and credit for the thirty-seven

years spent in a career as superintendent. Only thirty percent of the Group B respondents held the superintendency position in a district other than their present school district.

The data supporting the relationship between the number of years that respondents from both groups served as superintendents in other districts and the number of years served in the present district are shown in Table 19. It appears that the analysis of these data are consistent with the analysis of data made thus far, namely, that the goal selectors are emerging as a new "breed" of superintendents. Both groups, however, show a similarity in that about two-thirds of each group have served as superintendents in only one district.

The other aspect of the respondents' employment as a superintendent was to make a comparison of the total number of years each group and combined groups served as superintendents. This comparison is presented in Table 20, which appears on page 289 of this study.

The average of the total years that Group A served in the capacity of superintendent was 10.33 years, while for Group B the average was 5.2 years. For both groups combined, the average was 9.2 years. Again, the B group emerged as a younger group and with less experience, in general, than the A group. But, the B group appears to be more attuned to the contemporary school scene. Perhaps their younger age and early exposure to the superintendency, coupled with the urgency they feel for accomplishment, may account in some way for the differences in the leadership processes perceived by the two groups. This comparative background information may provide some reasons for the greater self-perceived participative leadership process, more indicated involvement, and a higher degree of trust and confidence on the part of Group B when compared with Group A.

TABLE 19

NUMBER OF YEARS EMPLOYED AS SUPERINTENDENT  
IN PRESENT DISTRICT, OTHER DISTRICTS AND ALL DISTRICTS

Number of Years			Group A		Group B	
<u>Other Districts</u>	<u>Present District</u>	<u>All Districts</u>	<u>NO.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>NO.</u>	<u>%</u>
0	2-11 mos.	2-11 mos.	1	6.7	1	10.0
0	1- 2 yrs.	1- 2 yrs.	2	13.3	4	40.0
0	3- 4	3- 4	1	6.7	1	10.0
0	5- 6	5- 6	1	6.7		
0	7- 8	7- 8	1	6.7		
0	9-10	9-10	1	6.7		
0	11-15	11-15	2	13.3		
0	16-20	16-20	1	6.7		
0	Over 20	Over 20			1	10.0
3- 4	9-10	12-14	1	6.7		
5- 6	3- 4	8-10	1	6.7	1	10.0
5- 6	5- 6	10-12	1	6.7		
7- 8	2-11 mos.	7- 8 yrs., & 11 mos.			1	10.0
9-10	2-11 mos.	9-10 yrs., & 11 mos.	1	6.7		
11-15	Over 20	Over 20	1	6.7		
16-20	7- 8	Over 20			1	10.0
Total			15	100.0	10	100.0

TABLE 20

## TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS EMPLOYED AS SUPERINTENDENT

NUMBER OF YEARS	Group A		Group B		Both	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
0.25	1	6.7	1	10.0	2	8.0
1			2	20.0	2	8.0
2	2	13.3	2	20.0	4	16.0
4	1	6.7	1	10.0	2	8.0
6	1	6.7			1	4.0
7	1	6.7	1	10.0	2	8.0
8	1	6.7	1	10.0	2	8.0
9	1	6.7			1	4.0
10.25	1	6.7			1	4.0
11	1	6.7			1	4.0
12	2	13.3			2	8.0
14	1	6.6			1	4.0
16	1	6.6			1	4.0
26			1	10.0	1	4.0
27			1	10.0	1	4.0
37	1	6.6			1	4.0
TOTAL	15	100.0	10	100.0	25	100.0



Self-characterization Factors Chosen By  
Respondents in Their Role As Superintendent

Respondents were asked to number three factors (1, 2, 3 in order of importance) that best characterize their role as superintendent. The B group ranked change agent as the top factor, followed by coordinator and facilitator and, thirdly, by consultant and advisor. The A group placed consultant-advisor in first place, coordinator-facilitator in second place, and ranked politician as third. Group A ranked the other factors as follows: fourth, business executive; fifth, change agent and salesman; sixth, enforcer; and, seventh, teacher. The B group ranked the remaining factors as follows: fourth, business executive; teacher, salesman and politician were all tied for fifth place. A distribution of the number of responses to factors ranked by the respondents' selected order of importance is presented in Table 21 which appears on page 293 of this study

To determine rankings of factors for each group and for both groups combined, the number of responses, ranked 1, 2 and 3 for each factor, were added and the total of the three rankings was percented to the sum total of all responses for each group. The percentages of responses for each factor were ranked from the highest to the lowest. Table 22 on page 294 shows the number and percent of added responses for the first, second, and third rankings of self-characterized factors selected and ranked by Group A and Group B superintendents. A summary arrangement of the numbering of these factors, in order of importance, is given below.

<u>FACTOR</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>Both</u>
Coordinator-Facilitator	2	2	2
Business Executive	4	4	4
Teacher	7	5	7
Consultant-Advisor	1	3	1
Salesman	5	5	6
Politician	3	5	5
Enforcer	6	0	7
Change-Agent	5	1	3

The most apparent differences between the two groups is the order of importance placed on the factor, change agent. Nearly seven percent (6.7%) of the Group A responses ranked this factor fifth, while thirty percent of the B group ranked this factor as first in order of importance. This is another indication that Group B might be more aggressive and more incisive in their plans and programs than Group A.

Both groups, however, are alike in that they view coordinating and facilitating as second in importance. However, a distinct difference in the character of the two groups is apparent in their third choice; the B group ranked consultant-advisor third, while the A group ranked politician as third. This is another possible indication that the leadership style selectors might tend more toward manipulating their interaction groups with behind-the-scene tactics, whereas the B group may tend to be more direct and open with their interaction groups.

Group B displays more certitude than their counterparts in Group A that the superintendent should make an outright commitment to a specific program change, educational objective, innovation or issue. It appears that the A group is concerned more with the political nature of problems than with the objective issues. Perhaps the A group attempts to circumvent obstacles, which prevent them

from achieving their goals, by being more consultative and by adhering to their basic posture of carrying out the community's wishes.

As a group, superintendents administering K-8 schools in the Northern portion of Cook County, where the assessed valuation per pupil lies below the median for that geographic section of the County, see themselves as educational administrators with a proclivity towards taking a stand only after the issues are discussed with their interaction groups. This is not always the pattern, nor is it a steadfast approach to exercising their leadership process as has been seen from the responses indicated on the scales analyzed in Chapter 4. Overall, the respondents are interested in specific program changes, planning, establishing educational objectives, introducing innovations and resolving issues, even though the leadership processes of members of both groups vary from a rarely used exploitive authoritative style to a high participative group style. The style used will depend on the predisposition of the superintendent to the issue at hand and and the group with which he must interact.

TABLE 21

NUMBER OF RESPONSES TO  
SELF-CHARACTERIZATION ROLES OF SUPERINTENDENTS SELECTED  
IN RANK ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

FACTOR	GROUP A			GROUP B			BOTH		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Coordinator - Facilitator	5	2	1	3	3	2	8	5	3
Business Executive	1	2	2		1	3	1	3	5
Teacher		1			1			2	
Consultant - Advisor	8	7	1	2	3	1	10	10	2
Salesman			3	1			1		3
Politician	1	2	4			1	1	2	5
Enforcer			2						2
Change Agent		1	2	4	2	3	4	3	5

<sup>a</sup>The numbers 1, 2, 3, below each group category, represent the rankings given by the respondents to the factors which best characterize their role as superintendent.

<sup>b</sup>The numbers in the columns represent the frequency of the factor chosen by the respondents of each group and for both groups.

TABLE 22  
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF  
ADDED RESPONSES FOR FIRST, SECOND  
AND THIRD RANKINGS OF SELF-CHARACTERIZED  
FACTORS SELECTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS

FACTOR	GROUP A		GROUP B		BOTH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Coordinator - Facilitator	8	17.7	8	26.7	16	21.3
Business Executive	5	11.1	4	13.4	9	12.0
Teacher	1	2.2	1	3.3	2	2.7
Consultant - Advisor	16	35.6	6	20.0	22	29.3
Salesman	3	6.7	1	3.3	4	5.3
Politician	7	15.6	1	3.3	8	10.7
Enforcer	2	4.4			2	2.7
Change Agent	3	6.7	9	30.0	12	16.0
Total Responses	45	100.0	30	100.0	75	100.0

## CHAPTER VI

### CONSLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

#### Conclusions

Administration, in its best sense, must be guided by leadership if the system is to be maintained and sustained. Leadership implies the assumption of responsibility for getting a group to take some sort of purposeful action. It involves a group and a purpose. But, in addition to assuming responsibility, the leader must also be accountable to the school board, parents and community for his administrative performance. The administrative process imposes upon the leader the function of decision making which guides the groups to take action geared toward achieving organizational goals.

The school structure is people oriented and indicates the relationships of people as they work to achieve a common goal, namely, to provide the best possible education for the children in the community. But, in order to do this, tasks must be performed. Goals imply programs; programs imply tasks; tasks require people to perform them. The chief school administrator must devise schemes for the coordination of tasks and activities distributed over space and time.

Regardless of the viewpoint adopted by those who engage in defining how a superintendent should behave as a leader, the superintendent is expected to guide an organizational structure which was created by statute to meet various group

purposes. Therefore, he must motivate and communicate because these are the binding elements of coordination. He must provide the structure with (1) ways of communicating ideas, (2) points of decision, (3) task assignments, (4) coordination of activities, and (5) evaluation of output.<sup>1</sup>

The superintendent is encharged with the responsibility and accountability of providing the best educational program that the district's resources will afford. He must answer the question of how best to provide for the welfare of the students. He must exercise his authority in this area. Otherwise, responsibility and accountability without authority become nothing more than shibboleths of meaningless expressions. His authority is proper in a democracy. As a matter of fact, it is a necessity.

The superintendent's authority should not become confused with the varieties of legal and quasi-legal sources of authorities, such as, constitutions, statutes, rules, regulations, by-laws, and policy statements. He must exercise the authority of ideas and the authority of competence in order to administer an effective organization. Nor should his authority be abrogated by theoretical concepts of democracy borrowed by analogy from the field of political science. These concepts build the framework within which the Public School system operates. Within this framework lies the administrative action which the superintendent must exercise in order to keep the system together, maintain it and sustain it, by feeding into

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<sup>1</sup>John E. Corbally, Chap. II, "Personnel Organization and Management," Annual Administration and Supervision Workshop: Proceedings, (College of Education, Department of Administration and Supervision, University of Houston; Houston, Texas, 1962), pp. 17 - 30.

the system new ideas, new programs and new goals.

Some theorists take the view that "leadership is not the power of one person to decide and control, but is a set of functions which no one person can fulfill."<sup>2</sup> This may imply that only group decisions are more effective than decisions made by a leader. It may imply that a leader should not impose his decisions upon the group without giving the group ample opportunity to participate in making decisions. Complete group control and complete leader control over goals and programs are two opposite extremes in leadership processes, and it would be difficult to assert that either one is the right approach to exercising a leadership style under all conditions.

If group control is adopted and such control overrides the ideas of a competent leader, the situation may evolve into one where the school district becomes "a happy ship," not necessarily going anywhere. However, on the other extreme, if the leader does not consult his interaction groups, does not communicate with the participants, does not provide ample opportunity to the participants to fully understand the reasons for change and to ask them to help on deciding to make the change, his leadership will be ineffective.

A science-based leadership theory, such as Likert's System 1 to System 4 model, takes into consideration many variables which operate in the interaction process between leader and groups. Issues are an important variable and the operating variables which hit at deep-lying interests, aptitudes of people, attitudes of trust and distrust, understanding of goals, amount of interaction and

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<sup>2</sup>Saunders et al., A Theory of Educational Leadership, p. 95.



communication, and channels of communication must be all interrelated when attempting to determine what type of leadership process should be utilized in order to launch an idea and keep it aloft. There are too many administrators who have the ability to launch innovative ideas, but cannot keep them aloft because they do not want to "rock the boat."

Each situation must be assessed on its own merits before a superintendent puts his selected leadership process into action. When initiating an idea or program to attain a goal, the leader may have to be authoritative in his style. But he becomes permissive in his relations with his interaction groups, as the group becomes more knowledgeable about the issue, for he assumes that as people grow they learn to assess their own aptitudes and develop their basic potentials.

The superintendent must build on a high-trust leadership. The process of tending towards a participative group leadership style, or democratic style of leadership, is an evolving and continuous process. If a new issue arises, giving need for new programs, the leadership process may or may not be participative group. In its initial stages it may have to be, of necessity, authoritative. Eventually, the leader steers his interaction groups towards the participative style.

Superintendents should not forget that the administrative or leadership process also entails a teaching process. The group, at times, has to walk before it runs. And so, principles of learning also apply to the superintendent's understanding of the leadership process. In spite of the low priority given by respondents to the factor, "Teacher," in their self-characterizations which best describe their role as superintendent, experience dictates that a leader must teach, not in a formal sense, but through communication, interaction, participation,

coaching, and just plain discussion.

Through the teaching process, confidence and trust are earned, not deserved. The effective leader must provide the opportunities and the climate for generating confidence and trust. Again, the process must be an emerging process which progresses to allow people to be responsible for their own destinies, for setting their own targets, assessing their own development needs, searching out resources to aid in task-accomplishment, and participating in setting organizational objectives. The superintendent must know that goal-formulation is a significant skill that must be learned, and that to develop such a skill the interaction groups must exercise a variety of opportunities to make decisions, explore goals, and experiment with many kinds of activities.

Participative group leadership creates interdependence and diminishes the problem of authority. Where there is interdependence, conflict and disagreement are openly expressed and can be resolved and integrated into productive work. In such an environment, people feel they are working together for a common goal and the organization can be flexible, diverse, and informal, with a minimum of rigid role requirements. Channels of communication become free, open, and spontaneous.

An analysis of the results of the questionnaires and interviews, and what the professional literature states, tend to indicate that leadership theories are going in the direction of a science-based, emergent style of leadership which neither condemns nor condones a certain leadership process. Issues, interaction groups, knowledge, competency, feelings towards issues and groups, and many other variables inherent in a leadership process will determine what type of leadership style a superintendent should utilize in a given situation. There must be a starting point, and the superintendent should not be hamstrung by dogmatic

pronouncements of well meaning and respected theoreticians who claim that the democratic leadership style or the participative group style must always be used. This is undoubtedly the most effective style, but conditions already mentioned must be present before it can be utilized. The superintendent, as an educational leader, must realize that, if he begins with a leadership process in a dimension on the continuum which lies outside the participative group dimension, he must strive to work with his interaction groups and lead them to the participative group leadership arrangement.

An analysis of the data indicates that the goal selectors, intent on attaining their stated goals, are working harder than the leadership style selectors towards an emergent, participative group style. The leadership style selectors appear to have a greater proclivity than the goal selectors towards using conventional defensive-leadership techniques of skilled persuasion to induce acceptance of leadership goals. The goal selectors appear to be more high-trust oriented towards their interaction groups and more bent on participation of their reference groups in the cooperative determination of goals. They have not arrived there completely, nor do they in all instances shy away from the authoritative leadership process. Individually, superintendents from both groups perceive their leadership processes on dimensions that range from authoritative explicitive to participative group. Collectively, the goal selectors' self-perceived leadership process appears to be closer to the participative group leadership dimension than that of the leadership style selectors.

### Hypothesis I

Superintendents, in their administrative roles, are more concerned with goal setting than with leadership style.

In the light of the accumulated data, this hypothesis is rejected. The superintendents were generally in agreement that goal setting is an important function of the administrative role. Only six, or twenty-four percent of the superintendents from the total number of respondents, chose goal setting on a voluntary acceptance basis and with no objection to the separation of the leadership style and goal setting functions. Four, or 16 percent of the superintendents, took exception to the distinction between the two roles because they felt that leadership process and goal setting are two functions of leadership and cannot be separated. However, these four made a forced choice selection indicating that, within the leadership concept, the function of goal setting is more important than leadership style. In total, ten or forty percent of all superintendents indicated they are more concerned with goal setting than leadership style.

Of those superintendents who chose leadership style (fifteen or sixty percent) only one respondent felt he was forced to elicit a response choosing leadership style over goal setting as more important in his role as superintendent. Five, or twenty percent of the total respondents from the two groups combined, elicited a forced choice, while the majority accepted the distinction between the two functions voluntarily. The apparent objection to this distinction possibly indicates confusion or uncertainty as to their leadership role.

Even though less than half the superintendents subscribe to a more responsive self-concept, those that define their roles in active terms constitute a significant minority. This distinction seems to be a critically important part of the new-breed rhetoric. Even though some superintendents questioned the validity of a

real distinction between leadership style and goal setting, as two separate administrative functions, all superintendents appear to be in agreement that both functions are important elements of a superintendent's role as an administrator. The disagreement was not over concepts, but over the separability and priorities of the concepts.

### Hypothesis II

Superintendents selecting leadership style over goal setting possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of their leadership process, within a dimension that ranges from benevolent authoritative to consultative, in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

This hypothesis concerns itself with the Group A superintendents' leadership processes and dimensions within which they perceive the types of processes they employ most of the time in their interaction with the reference groups in this study. The analysis of Group A superintendents' responses, presented in summary form in terms of frequencies and percents for each dimension along the continuum,<sup>3</sup> indicates that 74.93 percent of the responses fell within dimensions that range from consultative to group participative.

Out of a maximum total of 375 responses, twenty four or 6.40 percent appear in the authoritative exploitive dimension and seventy or 18.67 percent appear in the authoritative benevolent dimension of leadership processes. Therefore, about one fourth, or 25.07 percent, of the responses represent the Group A superintendents' cognitive perception of authoritative leadership processes.

There appears to be a greater degree of self-perceived leadership processes within dimensions that range from consultative to group participative rather than

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<sup>3</sup>See Table 12-1 on page 261<sub>a</sub>

the range stated in the hypothesis. Therefore, based on the analysis of accumulated data, this hypothesis is rejected.

The small but significant minority of self-perceived authoritative exploitive leadership style responses tends to indicate that: (1) some superintendents have no confidence in the board's budget decisions and have very little communication and interaction with the board on the subject of improving administrative techniques and developing a competent school staff; (2) some superintendents have no confidence and trust in teachers' budget recommendations; evaluate their teachers as feeling very little responsibility for improving the quality of teaching; and have little interaction with teachers on policy formulation; (3) some superintendents have no confidence and trust in parents nor do they interact much with parents on matters of budgets, improving the quality of teaching, school discipline and curricular innovations; and (4) some superintendents feel that the community, in general, feels very little responsibility for improving the quality of teaching.

About three fourths of Group A superintendents indicate that all groups should be involved consultatively and participatively in developing and establishing budgets, planning programs for improving the quality of teaching, developing policies, and assisting in the development of curricular reforms. The superintendents are aware that there will be greater demand for active teacher participation in budgets, policies, teaching techniques and curricular innovations. That is why some superintendents are working vigorously to establish councils and committees through which the teacher's voice can be heard. Most of the superintendents also realize that the communication void between their office and parents must also be filled by invoking more parent involvement in school matters

other than bond and tax referendums.

### Hypothesis III

Superintendents selecting goal setting over leadership style possess a higher degree of cognitive perception of a participative leadership process in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

This hypothesis implies that most of the goal selectors utilize the participative group style of leadership most of the time. Although the data indicate that 38.80 percent of the responses of goal selectors, as compared with 26.40 percent of the leadership style selectors' responses, point to a self-perceived participative group leadership process, the evidence is insufficient to support this hypothesis. In their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, most of the leadership style selectors perceived a participative group style of leadership most of the time, but their perception of the leadership process with the remaining interaction groups fell on other dimensions.

Table 12-1 on page 261a shows that fifty percent of the responses lie in the participative group dimension when superintendents interact with board members on selected issues, and sixty-eight percent of the responses lie in the same dimension in the interaction with principals and staff. However, the greatest frequency and percent of combined responses, the highest mean of all combined responses, and the mean converted to a score indicate that the overall leadership process of the B group is consultative. Nearly half of the combined responses fell on this dimension. The mean of all responses indicates a consultative rather than participative group style, because self-perceived leadership processes in interaction with teachers, parents and community fell in dimensions which range from authoritative exploitive to participative group. The frequency of point

values in the authoritative dimensions placed the average of all point values combined below the participative group dimension.

The frequency and percent of Group B self-perceived authoritative leadership processes are substantially lower than for the Group A leadership style selectors. Both groups indicated nearly the same percent of responses in the consultative dimension. The B group appears to have a stronger propensity towards the participative group leadership process, but not strong enough to produce evidence to accept this hypothesis. Therefore, this hypothesis is rejected.

#### Hypothesis IV

Both groups of superintendents, those placing priority on leadership style and those placing priority on goal setting, possess a cognitive perception of their leadership processes, which rarely operates in the exploitive authoritative dimension in their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

An analysis of cumulative data on the aggregate responses supports this hypothesis. Only 6.40 percent of the Group A responses and an insignificant 2.80 percent of the Group B responses, or less than 5.00 percent for the two groups combined, fell into this category.

For the most part, superintendents agree that it is not necessary to practice a leadership process which tends towards imposition and domination in the attainment of some pre-determined goal. It can, therefore, be concluded that, in general, very rarely do superintendents, as a group, elicit obedience to directives, use fear as a motivating practice, exhibit absolutely no confidence in interaction groups, and operate in a downward communication mode. Those who perceive an authoritative exploitive leadership process appear to utilize it with parents and teachers most of the time, and sometimes with agencies and representatives of the community at large.



The rarely self-perceived practice of the authoritative exploitive leadership process appears to be attributed to those superintendents who are frustrated in their efforts to improve the quality of teaching, to develop curricular innovations and to obtain additional funds to implement new programs and facilities. They feel that parents, teachers and, to a small degree, the community are not responsive to these needs.

Based on the results of the interviews and data accumulated from the questionnaire, this hypothesis can be accepted.

#### Hypothesis V

Superintendents' cognitive perception of leadership style varies on each relevant dimension of leadership processes, ranging from exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, to participative, depending on their interaction with school board members, principals and staff, teachers, parents and community.

The hypothesis implies that which is apparent from the analysis of the data presented in this study. Evidence collected tends to support the hypothesis. The only visible exception to the exploitive authoritative leadership process is the principals and staff interaction group. None of the responses from both groups indicated a self-perceived exploitive authoritative leadership process with this interaction group on any issue. Group B responses also excluded school board members from this leadership style dimension.

As was stated previously, the collected data show that 4.96 percent of the combined responses fell on the authoritative exploitive dimension and 14.72 percent of the total responses for both groups fell into the benevolent authoritative dimension.<sup>4</sup> Those superintendents who selected these responses, reflecting an

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<sup>4</sup>See Table 12-3, "Combined Groups," on page 261 of this study.

authoritative leadership process, need to work on gaining a mutually supportive attitude from parents. They should inculcate a feeling of responsibility in teachers for improving the quality of teaching. They should increase and improve the amount of interaction and communication with parents, teachers and community. They should strive for a more friendly interaction, built on mutual confidence and trust, with teachers, parents and community by invoking the participation and involvement of these interaction groups in establishing educational goals and programs.

The problem appears to be more in the direction of these three interaction groups (parents, teachers and community) and gives some indication of a polarization between the administrative structure and these groups. The role of the teacher in relationship to parents, community and the administrative structure requires extensive study and evaluation.

#### Hypothesis VI

Both groups, the goal selectors and the leadership style selectors, do not perceptually adhere to the traditional theory of a "democratic" or participative leadership process at all time.

Only 31.36 percent of the total combined responses fell into the participative group leadership process dimension. The evidence collected supports this hypothesis.

In order to equate the concept of participative group leadership process with a democratic leadership process, it must be made clear that the term democracy is not being used to denote a libertarian type of democracy which abdicates total responsibility over the administration of schools to the total whim and consensus of the public at large. On the contrary, statutes have vested the district school board with the responsibility of employing a superintendent

"who shall have charge of the administration of the schools under the direction of the board of education."<sup>5</sup> Duties of the district school superintendent are outlined in Article 10, Sec. 10-21.4 as follows:

In addition to the administrative duties, the superintendent shall make recommendations to the board concerning the budget, building plans, the location of sites, the selection of teachers and other employees, the selection of textbooks, instructional material and courses of study.

The superintendent shall keep or cause to be kept the records and accounts as directed and required by the board, aid in making reports required of the board, and perform such other duties as the board may delegate to him.<sup>6</sup>

By virtue of the above statute, the superintendent is charged with responsibility and accountability to the school board and the community to carry out his administrative function. He must initiate programs and plans for the better well-being of the pupils which his district serves. In his interaction with people, it appears that it would be rather difficult and impractical to wait for common consensus on all decisions before the superintendent can act.

Leadership that places major emphasis on developing people and on maximum involvement and participation in developing plans and programs is participative group and, in this sense, democratic. Sometimes superintendents, as professional leaders, dictate too much while others tend to carry out only what the people want. The good professional leader indulges in neither of these two extremes; he involves the people by appealing to their feeling of responsibility for their own affairs.

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<sup>5</sup>School Code of Illinois, compiled by N. E. Hutson, Legal Advisor. "Article 10, School Boards," Sec., 10-21.4. Issued by The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Illinois (Springfield, 1968), p. 98.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., pp. 98 - 99.

Democratic leadership requires a faith that people will respond when given the opportunity, the responsibility and the information. At times, when the process of involvement is too slow, a leadership style other than participative group may tend to develop people in the interaction groups and it may assure group action which otherwise could not be achieved. Consequently, the following principles provide direction to the leader in understanding his role and relationship to the interaction groups:

Each member of the group has contributions which he can make to the group.

People who have the opportunity to participate in making decisions that affect their well-being are likely to act in accordance with the decisions made.

Leadership is most effective when it is group-centered rather than centered in the status leader.<sup>7</sup>

Group centered leadership may start at any point on the continuum of leadership process dimensions. Emergent leadership attempts to bring along the group towards and into the stream of a democratic leadership process through the various operating processes which are related to the operating characteristics borrowed from Likert's System 1 to System 4 model. The type of leadership process perceived by superintendents is dependent upon the interrelationship of all these variables with the interaction groups and the issues on which the superintendent and the groups interact.

An analysis of the data collected provides evidence that both groups of superintendents do not perceptually adhere to the traditional theory of a democratic or participative group leadership process at all times. This hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

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<sup>7</sup>R. W. Montgomery, "Leadership, Democracy and Vocational Education," American Vocational Journal, XLI (December, 1966), pp. 11-13.

### Recommendations

A critical factor in each of the superintendent's expanding roles that have been discussed is the superintendent's leadership process which would integrate the functions of the interaction groups with the functions of the chief school administrator. There is growing evidence that attempts to improve coordination in highly functionalized organizations by working towards the employment of the System 4 leadership process, namely, participative group or democratic, are yielding successful results in industry and government agencies.<sup>8</sup>

The implementation of the mechanics for progressing towards an emergent, participative group leadership process generally begins with the appointment of cross-function committees. The committees consist of one or more persons from the various interaction groups operating within an organizational structure. By means of this operational device, planning for each phase of the leadership process can proceed smoothly from one dimension into the next.

The activation of committee and/or council arrangements will of itself be ineffective unless the members of those committees and councils are trained, educated, informed and made knowledgeable in the specific areas requiring concrete and affirmative programs aimed at solving problems and achieving goals. It is important, therefore, that the use of group interaction processes should be backed up by informal training sessions to help improve the coordination of all interaction groups.

At times the use of an informal process may be at odds with the formal structure and operating procedures of the school district. Each time a situation

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<sup>8</sup>Likert, The Human Organization, p. 183.

such as this occurs, the superintendent's leadership ability is put to a test. While he may be employing the consultative leadership process with committees and councils in the informal sense, and in an attempt to draw an interaction group towards the System 4 process, he may have to engage in a man-to-man System 2 benevolent authoritative process with the interaction group operating within the formal structure and in a formal manner.

Unfortunately, many efforts at coordination turn out to be largely piecemeal and represent only a partial use of an important leadership process insight. Committees and councils can turn out to be, at best, ad hoc arrangements involving trial-and-error attacks on problems. For example, ad hoc procedures, such as, utilizing a parent group to grapple with the issue of sex education, would not spread rapidly under a total System 2 (benevolent authoritative) leadership process, because they would be in violation of System 2 organizational principles. Other interaction groups, having responsibility in carrying out sex education programs, would not be involved in the planning procedures and would become an anomaly in the system.

A more effective and more permanent solution is to change the underlying system, so that the particular procedure and the excluded interaction groups would not be an anomaly. Rather than operating with two or more interaction groups separately, all groups should be drawn into the process by being a part of a congenial system. The superintendent may start with a benevolent authoritative leadership process in his interaction with the teacher group, while he is already employing a consultative style with parents and a participative group style with principals and staff, but he should strive towards an eventual focus of the three systems into a System 4 participative group leadership process. The

superintendent may begin with a multiple vision of leadership process dimensions, but he should work with all his interaction groups to achieve efficient coordination of all groups into System 4, as the formal system for all his operating procedures.

The use of the above theory implies an approach which must have continuity, sequence and integration. This integrated approach takes action at all points where it is required and can achieve better overall results in much less time than piecemeal trial-and-error solutions. The superintendent's intent on each action taken should be to lead all interaction groups towards the participative group dimension, even though, initially, he may decide that it is necessary to use a leadership style in any one of the other three dimensions.

Likert's theory suggests that there is a hierarchical structure of leadership processes. The superintendent should make an evaluation of the inter-relationships between issues, interaction groups, and the operational characteristics to determine what leadership style to use with each group. Then, he should take action at all relevant points to be sure that the most effective interaction processes are being used. He should proceed with each interaction group from one level of the hierarchy of leadership processes to the next, in an attempt to coordinate all interaction groups under one leadership process, namely, the participative group.

Specific Recommendations  
Towards an Emergent Leadership

As a result of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Superintendents should become familiar with the operating characteristics for each dimension of the leadership processes, so that they can utilize the leadership processes that are appropriate to their own unique circumstances in their relationships with specific interaction groups.

2. Superintendents should formulate a cooperative plan calling for committees and councils whose membership would consist of board members, administrators and staff members, teachers, parents and community representatives, so that the most productive organizational framework could be developed. This organizational framework would serve as the formal system through which all groups might work together as a team in order to provide the best possible educational program for children who attend the superintendent's schools.

3. Board members, superintendents, school administrators and staff should collaborate with teachers, parents and community, through established councils and committees, to conduct formal and informal orientation programs to familiarize the interaction groups with the elements of the issues in question. Depending on the group, the superintendent should utilize one or more of the following techniques: (a) problem solving conferences, (b) conferences, (c) coaching process, (d) workshops, (e) case study method, (f) lectures, (g) seminars, (h) meetings and discussions, (i) counseling, (j) consulting, (k) study groups, (l) classroom observations, and (m) printed material, such as, newsletters, bulletins, news releases, etc.

4. Superintendents should establish a Curriculum Council to facilitate a program of curriculum development and educational planning.



5. Teacher Welfare Councils should be established to facilitate discussions regarding concerns of teachers related to their professional employment.

6. A Finance Council should be established to involve all segments of the school district in the development of the instructional budget for the district schools. Procedures should be established for involving school board members, principals and staff members, teachers, parents and community representatives. This council will review budget requests and establish priorities in consideration of finances available in the instructional budget.

7. In view of their professional interests and for the purpose of instilling in them a feeling of responsibility for the quality of teaching, superintendents should involve teachers in decision making related to student welfare, educational programming, selection of materials, personnel welfare, and financial budgeting as it relates to the instructional program.

8. Fiscal responsibility is a concern of teachers, administrators, board members, parents and community. Financial expenditures should not be determined by income available, nor should expenditures rise to meet income. Rather, educational needs and program requirements should be determined and finances should be allocated to meet as many of these needs as possible. It is recognized that all needs may not be met due to financial limitations. Involvement and participation of all interaction groups should be encouraged through the Financial Council and its committees.

9. Parents and community representatives should be involved in discussions concerning teaching techniques and curricular reforms in order that they may become more knowledgeable about the more professional functions of the teaching process and so that they may attain a better understanding of one of the more

important educational functions for which their tax dollars are being spent.

10. Since the major problem confronting the superintendents is the availability of funds to maintain and improve educational facilities and programs, it is recommended that superintendents should exercise a great deal of their interaction influence, utilizing the suggested councils and committees, as communication channels, to gain community support for passage of the recent, most innovative addition to the proposed new Illinois constitution, namely, the state's first local government or home rule article.

During the Constitutional Convention, one state official remarked that Illinois "has to be the most over-legislated state in the Union."<sup>9</sup> Loosening the legislature's reins on local governments would end the need for cities and counties to go to the legislature "hat in hand" each time they want to finance a new project for health, safety and educational reasons. Under the proposed Constitution, about fifty-two municipalities would be eligible for automatic home rule, including more than thirty Chicago suburbs. Municipalities of more than 25,000 population would get automatic authority to levy taxes, license for regulation, and incur debt, all without legislative permission. Smaller suburbs could gain home rule through referendums and any municipality could reject home rule, also through referendums.

Municipalities would be permitted to levy taxes on tobacco, alcohol, mortgage, stock transfers, commodities, amusement, inheritance, corporate franchises and privileges. Cities, for the first time, would also be permitted to issue

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<sup>9</sup>"Home Rule Would Give Broad Powers to Cities," Chicago Tribune, Sunday, Nov. 22, 1970, Sec. I, p. 7.

bonds payable from property tax without referendum approval. The present 5 percent debt limit would also be eliminated.<sup>10</sup>

Incorporating the above provisions into an Education Article of the new Illinois Constitution could result in a most progressive expression of fundamental school policy in a state constitution, since it would provide for a sufficient delivery of educational services for school children and lead to substantial relief for the local property taxpayer. The inefficiencies in school finance policy which have been created by our inflexible and unwieldy 1870 Constitution would be terminated by the passage of the Education Article.

The unreasonable school debt limit of 5 percent and an irresponsible, regressively operating real property tax which pays for more than half of local school costs has increased the local tax burdens for homeowners. The state, which now pays 38 percent of local school costs, would pick up over 50 percent of the tab if the 1970 Constitution is approved, according to Constitutional Convention President, Samuel W. Witwer.<sup>11</sup> It is expected that the new provision, if passed, will assure long overdue relief for homeowners presently strapped with sky-rocketing property tax bills.

The 5 percent limit, written into the 1870 Constitution, has forced many school districts, particularly in Northern Illinois, to split off into two separate districts so they can double their borrowing power. This has increased

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid.

<sup>11</sup>"Con-Con President Pushes Education Article," The Press (Chicago: Northwest Side Publication, Marian Steinman, Publisher; 4941 Milwaukee Avenue), November 26, 1970, p. 5.

school administrative costs and led to an expensive duplication of services.<sup>12</sup>

The new Education Article would build a new confidence and trust between the superintendent and his interaction groups on matters of budgets and spending, particularly in his relationships with teachers and parents. Supportive behavior, on matters of budgets and spending, between superintendents and teachers and parents, need strengthening. The Education Article can be the catalyst and causal variable for improving the supportive relationships between the superintendent and his interaction groups. "Supportive behavior and high goals yield high performance."<sup>13</sup>

11. The primary function of the superintendent should be to set goals and propose programs to attain goals based on what he as a professional thinks is needed, and to develop these programs by invoking the involvement and participation of all concerned groups with which he interacts. Secondly, the superintendent should attempt to translate the community's educational desires and objectives into programs, but only after a professional evaluation of their demands, keeping in mind that the primary objective of all concerned should be the well-being and academic, physical, emotional and social growth of children.

12. Superintendents should collaborate with the school board to devise and implement community relations programs geared toward communicating with the community and involving the total community so that it will understand the problems facing the schools. Employing a "Publicitor" for this purpose is

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid.

<sup>13</sup>Likert, The Human Organization, p. 53.

recommended. Superintendents have a responsibility to give all community spokesmen the feeling that the schools do indeed belong to the community.

#### Implications for Further Study

The momentum of social, political, technological and philosophical changes has placed the superintendency in a crucial position of leadership. Many demands are being placed on the role and function of the superintendency. Because the leadership role of the superintendent is being challenged on many fronts, the superintendent must ask himself the question of how should he behave as an administrator, when confronted with issues which require him to interact with reference groups whose presence in the educational arena must be acknowledged. Should he react forcefully and assert himself in his leadership role? Should he always set goals first and then be concerned with the leadership style he will use to manipulate his interaction groups in a coordinative fashion, so that all concerned will work harmoniously towards attaining established goals?

Because superintendents realize they must strengthen their leadership role in order to sift through all the elements of confusion, which reins over the mix of all the obtrusive educational problems, involving not only the pupils but all those groups with which he must interact, and because the superintendent is expected to establish orderly procedures for resolving these problems, the findings of this study raise the following implications for further study:

1. Have the institutions of higher learning been effective in the production of researchers for the field of education in the area of leadership processes utilization?
2. Will graduate schools of educational administration undertake the project of developing programs specifically designed to produce

competent and vigorous leaders of clinical practice rather than theoreticians of leadership concepts?

3. What is the relationship between the superintendent's self-perceived leadership processes on major issues and the leadership processes perceived by the interaction groups and ascribed by them to their chief school officers?
4. Should superintendents relinquish some of the control on budget decisions and gain full participation from the interaction groups in setting priorities for which available funds are to be spent.
5. How should parents become more involved in the review of school activities? What role should parents have in the determination of teaching techniques, evaluating the quality of teaching and implementing curricular reforms?
6. How does a superintendent build into his school district provisions for innovation so that all concerned can be involved and can participate in planning and implementing the innovative programs?  
Will the provisions vary among interaction groups?
7. Are the goal setters more adept than leadership style selectors, at manipulating people, by varying the leadership processes depending on the group with which they interact?
8. To what extent should teachers, parents and community representatives participate in the policy decision making process?
9. When do superintendents make decisions and what types of decisions are superintendents required to make that would necessitate (a) group participation, (b) consultation and (c) self-made decisions with no

intervention from reference groups?

10. What research should be conducted to determine how goal attainment can be measured? Further research studies should be made to determine the relationship between the measures of performance goals and effectiveness of each dimension of leadership process utilized with interaction groups to attain specified goals.

The Institute for Social Research is working intensively to learn much more about the System 1 to System 4 leadership processes and the most appropriate adaptations for applying them in specific organizational situations.<sup>14</sup> However, all the research in this area is confined to a limited number of large companies in widely different industries. Would that similar extensive research on leadership processes were made in the field of educational administration and, specifically, on the role of the superintendent as an educational leader! Perhaps another impetus in this direction with funds to be provided by a national foundation, as was the fortune of educational administrators in 1950, could launch an extensive research program to study the leadership processes of school superintendents.

The future of research on leadership processes is well described by Rensis Likert, the author of the System 1 to System 4 science-based management system:

In the years ahead, management systems superior to any now envisioned will be developed as the science-based body of knowledge grows both in scope and accuracy. Additional research will contribute its part, as will more insightful and systematic integrations of research findings. Organizations which wish to make full use of science-based management, both as

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<sup>14</sup>Likert, The Human Organization, p. 191.

we know it at present and as it evolves, can start now by moving toward something like System 4. Efforts to move in such a direction will, of course, be facilitated by reasonably full descriptions of the principles and procedures characteristic of this system.<sup>15</sup>

To meet the challenges and pressures of rapidly changing times, the superintendent will have to be an effective leader. Today's superintendent will have to attune his leadership process to the admixture of variables inherent within a particular situation. If he begins in the authoritative dimension, he will have to move rapidly from the authority of leadership by encouraging, and not by trying to instill fear in his followers; if he attempts to implement the innovation through the participative group process, he had better be sure that his reference groups are steering in the right direction and on course towards the stated goal. Otherwise, the superintendent's leadership will be ineffective. At some relevant point of action, the superintendent's interaction groups must be heard. In closing, the following quotation is appropriate:

In simple terms, the administrator is employed to be an educational leader. The acceptance or rejection of an innovation is a leadership function no matter whether the idea to change comes from the superintendent or from the staff. The age-old advice to be a good listener is as appropriate today as it has been in the past. Principals, supervisors, department heads and teachers may have a good idea and a good reason for wanting to initiate an innovation in school. Their idea should be heard.<sup>16</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>Likert, The Human Organization, p. 191.

<sup>16</sup>M. P. Heller, "The Administrator and Innovations," The American School Board Journal, CLV (March, 1968), p. 19.



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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

Section I - Background Information

1. What is the highest degree that you have obtained, and University attended? (Circle one of the following and enter name of University)

Degree

University

- a. Bachelor  
b. Master  
c. Doctorate

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

2. What is your age? (Fill in blank)

My age is \_\_\_\_\_ years.

3. Please indicate living status. (Circle one of the following)

- a. Own home  
b. Rent  
c. Board

4. How long have you been employed by your district? (Fill in blank)

I have been employed \_\_\_\_\_ years by my district.

5. How many years have you been a superintendent? (Fill in blank)

- a. In your district \_\_\_\_\_ years.  
b. In other districts \_\_\_\_\_ years.  
c. Total years as superintendent \_\_\_\_\_ years.

6. Number three (1, 2, 3 in order of importance) that best characterize your role as superintendent.

Coordinator and facilitator  
Business Executive  
Teacher  
Consultant and advisor  
Salesman  
Politician  
Enforcer  
"Pusher" for change

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

## Section II - Role Selection

This Section makes a distinction between those superintendents who place a priority on leadership style and those who place a priority on goal setting and attainment as more important in their role as superintendent.

To clarify the distinction, style of influence (leadership style) is to be considered as an attitude, on the part of the chief school officer, of working toward obtaining cooperation and consensus among the various interaction groups, accepting the consensus, translating the concepts expressed by these groups into objectives, and finally, implementing these objectives into programs.

A goal oriented chief school officer takes the initiative to develop goals and objectives, projects these goals and objectives towards the various groups with which he interacts, and solicits their cooperation to implement programs designed to achieve the goals and objectives. It is a difference between (a) accepting ideas and desires from other people, and (b) developing your own ideas on educational needs for implementation through the interaction groups.

In a further attempt to clarify this distinction, it is a difference between (a) implementing what others think is good for the educational system, and (b) what you, as chief school officer, think is good for the system.

Which of these two do you consider more important in your role as superintendent? Select one by placing an "x" in the box opposite your choice.

1. Using style of influence in order to obtain cooperation and consensus among school board members, principals and staff teachers, parents and community; and translating their educational desires and objectives into programs. ☐
2. Developing programs based on what you think is needed to achieve goals and objectives. ☐

## Section III - Self-perceived Leadership Processes

The way a Superintendent gets a job done may be described by his professional style. This section deals with questions of this kind. On the lines below each operational variable of the questionnaire, please place an "x" at the point which, in your estimation, best describes your operational process towards the person or group with which you are dealing. Treat each item as a continuous variable from the extreme at one end to that at the other end. Also, state the reason for your particular choice.

1. In your dealings with School Board Members:

Operating Characteristics

Operating Processes

Item #

a. Extent to which I have confidence and trust in their decisions on budgets.	Have no confidence and trust.	Have condescending confidence & trust.	Substantial but not complete; still wish to keep control of decisions	Complete confidence and trust.	1
b. Amount of interaction & communication aimed at improving administrative techniques.	Much.	Quite a bit.	Little.	Very little.	2
c. Extent to which my motives conflict with or reinforce one another in written board policies.	Marked conflict reducing support of policies.	Conflict often exists but occasionally will reinforce my motives.	Some conflict, but often will reinforce my motives.	Motives generally enforced in substantial and cumulative manner to support policies wholeheartedly.	3
d. Manner in which I set programs to achieve curricular innovations.	Goals and programs are established by Board participation.	Goals and programs are set after discussion of problem & planned action.	Bulletin issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist.	Bulletin issued to Board.	4
e. Amount & character of interaction with Board on policy matters.	Little and always with fear.	Little, with some condescension & caution.	Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence & trust.	Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence & trust.	5

## 2. In Your Dealings with Principals and Staff:

### Operating Characteristics

### Operating Processes

a. Extent to which I have confidence & trust in their recommendations on budgets.	Complete confidence and trust.	Substantial but not complete; still wish to keep control of decisions.	Have condescending confidence & trust.	Have no confidence & trust.	Item #
					6.
b. Amount of responsibility felt by principals & staff for improving quality of teaching.	Very little.	Some.	Substantial portion.	Real responsibility & motivated to implement techniques.	
					7.
c. Amount of interaction and communication aimed at improving administrative techniques.	Much	Quite a bit.	Little.	Very little.	
					8.
d. Amount & character of interaction-influence on policy matters.	Little and always with reservations.	Little, with some condescension and caution.	Moderate and often with faint amount of confidence & trust.	Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence and trust.	
					9.
e. Manner in which I set programs to achieve curricular innovations.	Goals and programs are established by staff participation.	Goals and programs are set after discussion of problem and planned action.	Bulletin issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist.	Bulletin or memo issued.	
					10.

3. In your dealings with Teachers:

Operating Characteristics

Operating Processes

Item #

a. Amount and character of interaction with teachers on policy matters.	Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence & trust.	Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence & trust.	Little, with some condescension and caution.	Little and always with reservations.	11.
b. Manner in which I set programs to achieve curricular innovations.	Bulletin issued.	Bulletin issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist.	Goals and programs set after discussion of problem & planned action.	Goals and programs established by teacher participation.	12.
c. Extent to which I have confidence & trust in their recommendations on budgets.	Have no confidence and trust.	Have condescending confidence & trust.	Substantial, but not complete; still wish to keep control of decisions.	Complete confidence and trust.	13.
d. Amount of interaction and communication aimed at improving relationships between teachers & administrators.	Very little.	Little.	Quite a bit.	Much.	14.
e. Amount of responsibility felt by teachers for improving quality of teaching.	Real responsibility and motivated to implement techniques.	Substantial portion.	Some.	Very little.	15.

4. In your dealings with Parents:

Operating Characteristics

Operating Processes

Item #

a. Amount of responsibility felt by parents for improving quality of teaching.

Very little.

Some.

Substantial portion.

Real responsibility and motivated to support programs.



16.

b. Amount & character of interaction with parents on matters of discipline.

Little and always with reservation.

Little, with some condescension and caution.

Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence & trust.

Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence & trust.



17.

c. Manner in which I set programs to achieve curricular innovations.

Goals and programs established by parent group participation.

Goals and programs set after discussion of problem & planned action with parents.

Announcement made, opportunity to comment may or may not exist.

Announcement made.



18.

d. Extent to which I have confidence & trust in their recommendations on how tax money is to be spent.

Complete confidence and trust.

Substantial, but not complete; still wish to keep control of decisions.

Have condescending confidence & trust.

Have no confidence and trust.



19.

e. Amount of interaction & communication aimed at gaining their understanding of school problems & progress.

Much.

Quite a bit.

Little.

Very little.



20.

5. In your dealings with the Community:

Operating Characteristics

Operating Processes

Item #

	Very little.	Little.	Quite a bit.	Much.	
a. Amount of interaction & communication aimed at keeping community informed of school problems and progress.					21.
b. Amount of responsibility felt by community to improve quality of teaching.	Real responsibility and motivated to support programs.	Substantial portion.	Some.	Very little.	22.
c. Amount and character of interaction with influential people in community.	Extensive, friendly with high degree of confidence & trust.	Moderate and often with fair amount of confidence & trust.	Little, with some condescension and caution.	Little and always with reservation.	23.
d. Manner in which I encourage improvement in school-community relations.	Consult no community agency directly.	Consult selected community agencies directly.	Consult all agencies for discussion of problems & goals.	Consult & establish programs & planned action with community agencies.	24.
e. Extent to which I have confidence & trust in their votes cast for bond issues.	Have no confidence and trust.	Have condescending confidence & trust.	Substantial, but not complete; still wish to keep control over my decisions.	Complete confidence & trust.	25.

## APPENDIX B

### THE "t" TEST OF A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF RESPONSE SCORES REPRESENTING MEASURED SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PROCESSES SELECTED BY GROUP "A" AND GROUP "B" SUPERINTENDENTS

The purpose of computing  $t$  scores was to determine the significance of differences of mean scores obtained for the two groups of superintendents for:

1. each operational characteristic of which there are twenty-five;
2. a combination of all five operational characteristics studied for each interaction group of which there are five;
3. a combination of all the operational characteristics for all five interaction groups.

Fisher's  $t$  formula for testing a difference between means, when means are uncorrelated, was used:

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\left( \frac{\sum x^2_1 + \sum x^2_2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2} \right) \left( \frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 N_2} \right)}}$$

where:  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  = means of Group A and Group B samples.

$\sum x^2_1$  and  $\sum x^2_2$  = sums of squares in the two samples.

#### Operations

1. There are five interaction groups: 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.
2. For each interaction group, there are two groups of superintendents representing two distinct and characteristically different groups. In other words, they are represented as  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .



3. Within each interaction group there are five operational characteristics, designated as 1-(a), 1-(b), 1-(c), 1-(d), 1-(e); 2-(a), 2-(b), 2-(c), 2-(d), 2-(e), etc.
4. For each operational characteristic (1-(a), 1-(b), 1-(c), etc.) the number of observations for  $x_1 = 15$ ; for  $x_2 = 10$ . The "N" for these two groups is held constant for each of the operational characteristics in all of the five interaction groups. Therefore, twenty five differences between mean scores of self-perceived leadership processes were computed.
5. Arrays of scores for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  were listed. The following mathematical operations were performed:

- (a) Find  $M_1$  of scores for  $x_1$  by adding fifteen scores for each operational characteristic and dividing by  $N = 15$ .

$$\left( M_1 = \frac{\sum x_1}{N_1} \right)$$

- (b) Find  $M_2$  of scores for  $x_2$  by adding ten scores and dividing by  $N = 10$ .

$$\left( M_2 = \frac{\sum x_2}{N_2} \right)$$

- (c) Compute the difference between each of the scores and the mean of scores for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

- (d) Square the differences between each of the scores and the mean for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .
- (e) Add the squares of the differences.
- (f) Enter the above statistics into the formula and complete the mathematical computations. Divide the difference of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  by the square root of:

The sum of the squares of the differences between scores and the mean of  $x_1$ , plus the sum of the squares of the differences between scores and the mean of  $x_2$ , divided by  $N_1$  plus  $N_2$  minus 2, and multiply the result by

$$\left( \frac{N_1}{N_1} + \frac{N_2}{N_2} \right)$$

- (g) The above operations were repeated for all twenty five sets of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .
6. The operations described in number (5) above were repeated for all scores obtained for the five operational characteristics and for each interaction group to determine the significance of the difference of means for all characteristics combined and by interaction group. There are 75 scores in group  $x_1$  and 50 scores in group  $x_2$ . This was done for all five groups separately.
  7. The final operation combined all scores of all five interaction groups for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . Total scores for  $x_1 = 75 \times 5 = 375$  scores; for  $x_2 = 50 \times 5 = 250$  scores. The same mathematical operations were performed for the 375 scores and the

250 scores, as described in paragraph (5) above, in order to find the  $t$  score to test the overall difference between the two groups.

8. The significance of the difference between means of scores was determined from the table of  $t$  ratios for varying degrees of freedom. The degrees of freedom for each of the three operations are given below:

- (a) For each operational characteristic: -- 23 df.
- (b) For all operational characteristics in  
each interaction group: -- 123 df.
- (c) For all operational characteristics  
combined for all five interaction  
groups: -- 623 df.

The significant values at the .05 level and at the .01 level for the above degrees of freedom are as follows:

23 df.

at .05 level  $t$  score = 2.069

at .01 level  $t$  score = 2.807

123 df.

at .05 level  $t$  score = 1.980

at .01 level  $t$  score = 2.617

623 df.

at .05 level  $t$  score = 1.964

at .01 level  $t$  score = 2.585

Table 23 on the following pages contains the differences between means and scores, and the  $t$  scores for all items in the questionnaire, treated

individually, combined for each interaction group and for all interaction groups combined.

TABLE 23

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS AND SCORES, AND  $t$  SCORES

FOR ALL ITEMS IN QUESTIONNAIRE;

GROUP "A" COMPARED WITH GROUP "B"

## School Board

Item	Difference: $\bar{m}$	Difference: S	"t" Score
1-a	0.67	0.13	0.598
1-b	2.83	0.65	2.539
1-c	0.13	0.03	0.064
1-d	2.14	0.43	2.419
1-e	1.43	0.29	1.291
Total	1.44	0.29	2.187

## Principals and Staff

Item	Difference: $\bar{m}$	Difference: S	"t" Score
2-a	1.50	0.30	1.487
2-b	1.17	0.23	0.942
2-c	0.50	0.10	0.475
2-d	1.30	0.26	1.155
2-e	1.00	0.20	1.120
Total	1.09	0.23	2.026

## Teachers

Item	Difference: $\bar{m}$	Difference: S	"t" Score
3-a	2.13	0.43	1.215
3-b	3.80	0.76	2.341
3-c	1.40	0.28	1.194
3-d	0.87	0.17	0.672
3-e	1.97	0.39	1.401
Total	2.03	0.41	2.888

TABLE 23  
Continued

## Parents

Item	Difference: $\bar{m}$	Difference: S	"t" Score
4-a	- 0.50	- 0.10	0.322
4-b	0.70	0.34	0.966
4-c	0.67	0.13	0.705
4-d	3.13	0.63	2.303
4-e	0.90	0.18	0.630
Total	1.17	0.23	1.636

## Community

Item	Difference: $\bar{m}$	Difference: S	"t" Score
5-a	1.44	0.29	0.323
5-b	1.09	0.23	1.102
5-c	2.03	0.41	0.056
5-d	1.17	0.23	1.805
5-e	1.05	0.21	0.897
Total	1.36	0.28	1.582

## Consolidated - Groups I--V

Groups I--V	1.34	0.27	4.280
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Significant Differences Between  
Group "A" and Group "B" Superintendents

When considering singular operating characteristics and the means of scores representing the point values chosen by both groups of superintendents on the scale of leadership processes for these operating characteristics, the t scores indicate that Group A and Group B superintendents differ significantly on the following items:

<u>Item</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
1-(b) In their interaction with School Board members, both groups differ significantly in the extent to which their motives conflict with or reinforce one another in written board policies.	.05 (2.069 $\leq$ 2.539 $\leq$ 2.807)
There appears to be less conflict between Group B superintendents and the school board than between Group A superintendents and the school board. The B group indicated that they support board policies to a greater extent than the A group.	
1-(d) The amount and character of interaction with the Board on policy matters is more extensive and with a greater degree of confidence and trust on the part of Group B superintendents than that of the A group.	.05 (2.069 $\leq$ 2.419 $\leq$ 2.807)
3-(b) Group B superintendents differ significantly from Group A on the amount of responsibility felt by their teachers for improving the quality of teaching. Group B superintendents view their teachers as feeling much more responsibility and motivation than do the Group A superintendents to implement improved teaching techniques.	.05 (2.069 $\leq$ 2.341 $\leq$ 2.807)

<u>Item</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
4-(d) In their interaction with parents on matters of school discipline, the interaction influence of Group B superintendents is more extensive, friendly and with a higher degree of confidence and trust than that of Group A.	.05 (2.069 $\leq$ 2.303 $\leq$ 2.807)

Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference between Group A and Group B superintendents is significant at the .05 level for items 1-(b), 1-(d), 3-(b), and 4-(d), or, on issues of policies, in their interaction with School Board members; amount of responsibility felt by teachers, in their interaction with teachers; and on matters of discipline, in their interaction with parents. Operating variables corresponding to each of the items are: 1-(b), Motivational Forces; 1-(d), Interaction Influence; 3-(b), Motivational Forces; 4-(d), Interaction Influence. It also appears that Group B superintendents exert motivational forces, which reinforce their motives with those of Board and teachers, to a greater degree than the Group A superintendents. This may be due to a greater amount of interaction influence that the B group exerts with these two interaction groups than does the A group. This difference is also evident with the amount of interaction influence perceived by both groups in their interaction with parents on matters of discipline.

When considering the means of scores for all operating characteristics (five) combined and for each of the five interaction groups, the  $t$  scores for the difference of the means of response scores indicate that the two groups of superintendents differ significantly in their self-perceived leadership processes when interacting with the following groups:

<u>Interaction Group</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
School Board	.05 (1.980 $\leq$ 2.187 $\leq$ 2.617)



<u>Interaction Group</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
Principals and Staff	.05 (1.980 $\leq$ 2.026 $\leq$ 2.617)
Teachers	.01 (1.980 $\leq$ 2.617 $\leq$ 2.888)

Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups of superintendents differ significantly in their self-perceived leadership processes when interacting with School Board members, principals and staff, and teachers, using the five operational characteristics combined as criteria for measuring leadership processes.

"The distinction between large-sample and small-sample statistics is not an absolute one, the one realm merging into and overlapping the other."<sup>1</sup> Statistic  $\underline{t}$  applies regardless of the size of the sample. The greatest difference caused by the size of the sample is not on the  $\underline{t}$  score, but on the distribution of  $\underline{t}$ . As the df becomes very large, the distribution of  $\underline{t}$  approaches the normal distribution. The kurtosis of the distribution becomes affected. A higher distribution becomes more mesokurtic or normal. As the df becomes very large, the distribution of  $\underline{t}$  approaches the normal distribution as its limit. Critical values of  $\underline{t}$ , therefore, will vary in accordance with the df, which in turn is determined by the size of N in the sample.

The  $\underline{t}$  scores were used, on the basis of the above explanation, to determine the significance of difference between means of scores for all 375 responses in Group A and for all 250 responses in Group B. It is true that

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<sup>1</sup>J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company), p. 182.

the combinations of responses are such that twenty-five responses were allocated to each superintendent in each group, but an attempt was made to obtain the t distribution of all responses combined for each group. The data are uncorrelated and the t formula utilized for determining the significant difference between means of the combined responses is intended for treating such uncorrelated data.

The t score of the difference between the means of scores representing self-perceived leadership processes for all operational characteristics combined, of Both A and B groups, was found to be 4.280 at 623 df. The two groups differ very significantly at the .01 level of significance with a t score of 4.280. ( $1.964 \leq 2.585 \leq 4.280$ )

# APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Stanley L. Mularz has been read and approved by members of the School of Education.

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

January 20, 1971  
Date

M. J. Heller  
Signature of Advisor